L1.89/9:1/9

manpower

vol.1 no. 9 october 1969

Public Documents Division
Oklahoma Department of Libraries

NOV 24 1969

New Craftsmen for an Old Art

manpower

In this issue . . .

"We know how to communicate. You don't know how to communicate with us." — Page 3

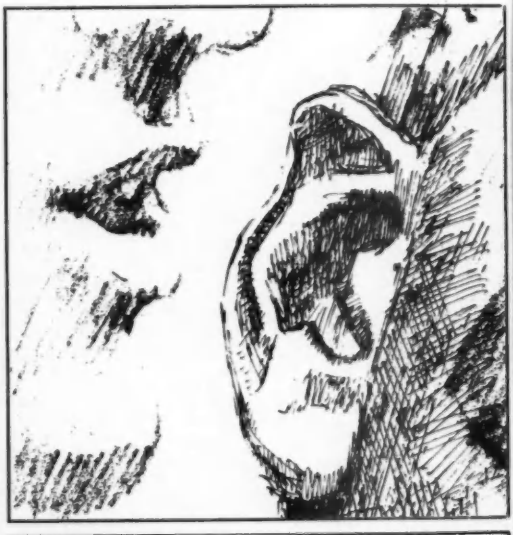
". . . but a man sitting in a room with 20 women, that's too much." — Page 11

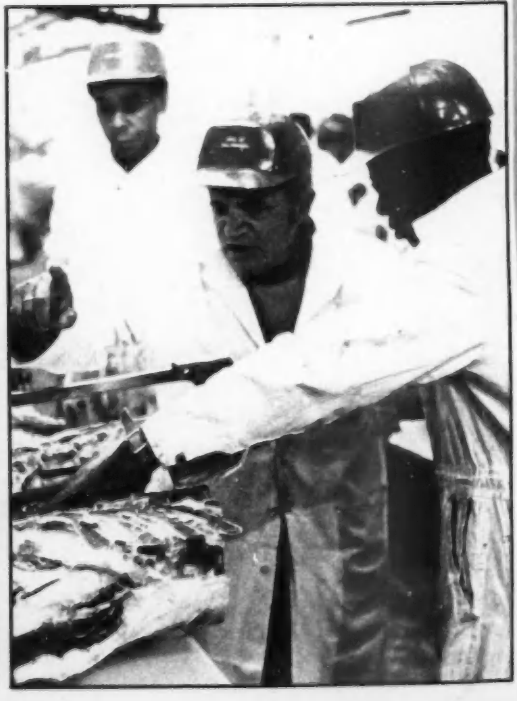
"Our whole economy would be strengthened if we develop stronger black businesses." — Page 18

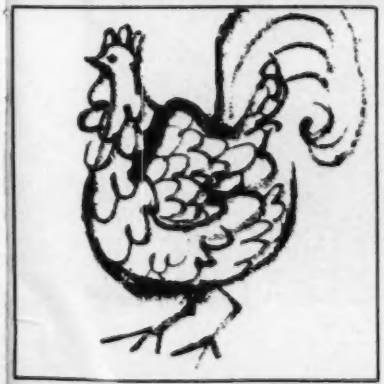
"Creation is the result of purposeful patience." — Page 22

Public school education must prepare a young person for change. It is not enough to find him a job and leave him there. — Page 25

Occasionally, the delegates emerged at the end of a hard day with the word that they were going to support a revolution in Aurora. — Page 32







Articles

2 **COMMUNICATING WITH THE DISADVANTAGED**
Michael E. Carbine

7 **NEW CRAFTSMEN FOR AN OLD ART**
Margaret M. Troxell

10 **FROM WELFARE ROLLS TO PAYROLLS**

15 **URBAN LOANS: INTEREST IN SOCIAL PROFIT**

20 **JAPANESE CULTIVATE U.S. FARM SKILLS**
Ernie Hood

23 **BUILDING UP MINORITY CONTRACTORS**

25 **VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN A DYNAMIC LABOR MARKET**
Grant Venn

28 **PRESIDENT WOULD EXPAND LOCAL ROLE IN MANPOWER TRAINING**

30 **A UNITED NATIONS FOR MANPOWER**

Departments

14 **NEWS & NOTES**

33 **PUBLICATIONS**

George P. Shultz, Secretary of Labor
Arnold R. Weber, Assistant Secretary for Manpower
Malcolm R. Lovell, Jr., Deputy Assistant Secretary for Manpower and Manpower Administrator

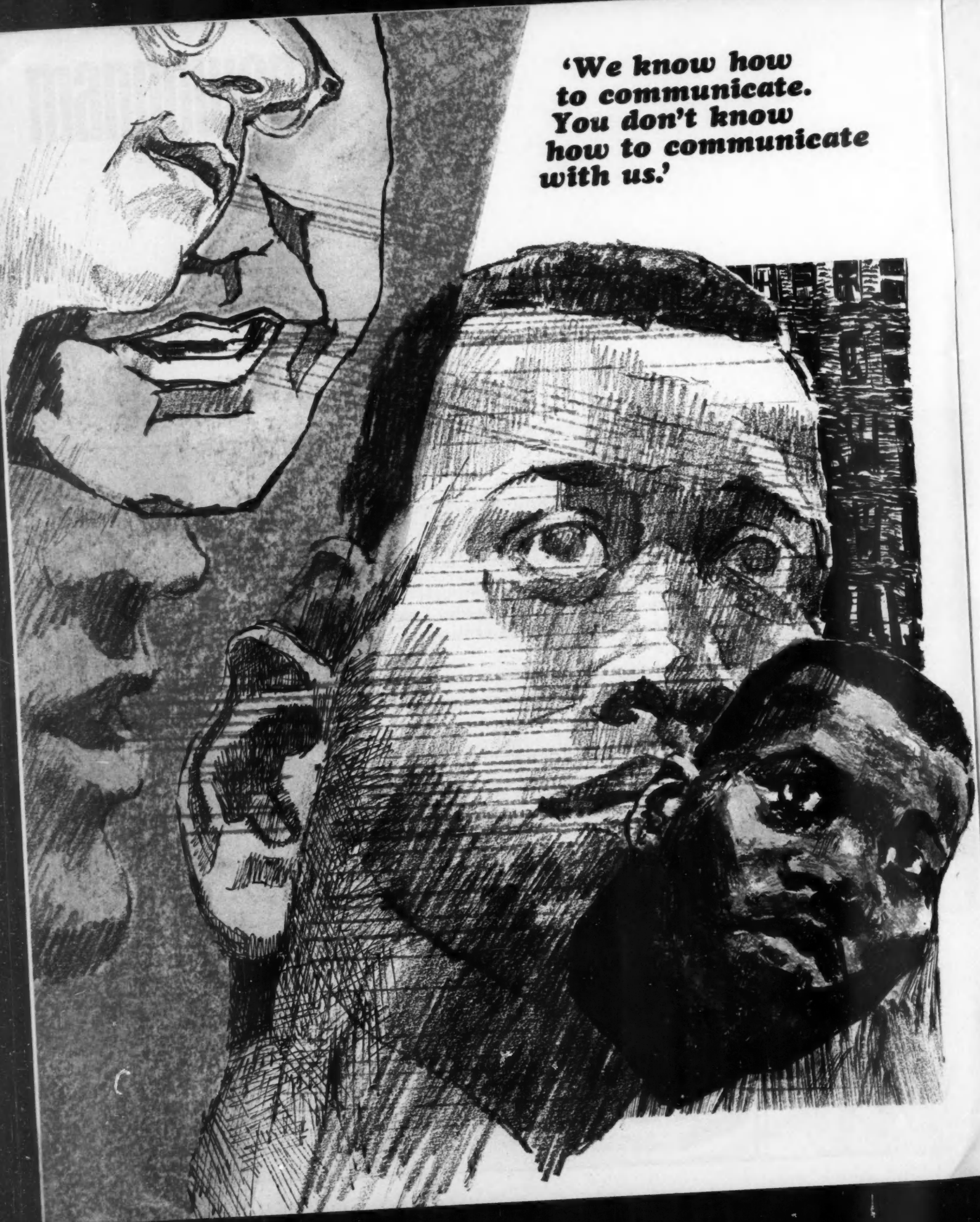
MANPOWER Magazine is the official monthly journal of the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. It is distributed without charge to personnel of the national and regional Manpower Administration offices and, by special arrangement, to State employment security agencies. It is also available on subscription at $7.50 a year (single copies 65 cents) from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. In countries other than the United States, Canada, and Mexico, annual subscription is $9.50. Use of funds for printing this publication approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget October 25, 1968.

Expressions of opinions in articles by authors outside the U.S. Department of Labor do not necessarily represent the views of the Department. Correspondence regarding articles should be addressed to the Editor, MANPOWER Magazine, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210.

CHANGES OF ADDRESS: Send new address, including ZIP code, to Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Please also include old address label from MANPOWER.

COVER: Stained glass Creation Window in the New York Avenue Presbyterian Church, Washington, D. C.

Ellis Rottman, editor
Emil Michael Aun, associate editor
Patricia Marshall, assistant editor
Richard Mathews, art director
Sally Moffat, associate art director


'We know how
to communicate.
You don't know
how to communicate
with us.'

communicating with the disadvantaged

By MICHAEL E. CARBINE

America's attempt to reach and assist her disadvantaged unemployed and underemployed has been an interesting mixture of commonsense, wisdom, misconceptions, slogans, and emotions. It has been marked by the intensity and dedication of the many middle-class citizens who have become actively involved in the effort. And it has been marred by repeated failures in communications between the middle class and those they are trying to help. Even the terms by which the unemployed and underemployed are described—disadvantaged and hard core—have created difficulties and in some cases have been rejected or abandoned. The Jewel Food Store Company in Chicago refuses to use the term hard core in its special training program for marginal workers, and the Schmidt Baking Company of Baltimore uses the term special hires, indicating a prospective worker who does not meet the firm's traditional criteria.

There is no such thing as **the** disadvantaged. Individuals may properly be dedescribed as disadvantaged, but their needs will vary tremendously. Thus an approach that works with one group will not necessarily prove successful with another. As Gladys M. Johnson, an official of the Michigan Employment Security Commission, commented at a recent meeting in Chicago of State employment service representatives:

"In our time, the best definition I have is that a disadvantaged individual is born at the wrong time, in the wrong place, to the wrong parents, maybe of the wrong sex, and the wrong color. This involves a very large group of human beings; some are black, and some are not; some are children and some are aged; some are physically handicapped and some are emotionally handicapped."

Mr. Carbine is a freelance writer.

It is a common misconception that because the disadvantaged individual often lacks formal education, motivation, or cultural sophistication in the generally accepted sense, he is somewhat less than intelligent and that whatever language he uses (especially if he is black) he cannot be understood. Certainly many people classified as disadvantaged do not talk the way most Americans do. This does not mean, however, that they can't communicate. As one poor black put it: "We know how to communicate. You don't know how to communicate with us."

A Different Language

Disadvantaged individuals can communicate. What is often misunderstood is that their verbal expressions are a somewhat sophisticated means of excluding outsiders, and that in practical knowledge they are far from inferior. Their language and form of knowledge differ from those acceptable to the average American because the disadvantaged form a separate community within American society, a community isolated both geographically and psychologically.

Residents of this community (ghetto, slum, depressed area, etc.) are, for the most part, restricted from leaving it by poor health, lack of money, or psychological fear. They are separated from "normal society" not only by location, but also by their attitudes and behavorial patterns and, if they are black, by their color. Their primary exposure to the "outside" is through the mass media.

The environment, upbringing, and economic condition of the disadvantaged precipitate physical and emotional handicaps which isolate them from the understanding and acceptance of "normal" American society (and, conversely, American middle-class society is often a puzzlement to them). Successful communication between the two groups depends on understanding these handicaps, and the characteristics a middle-class individual develops as a result of his environment and upbringing.

The middle-income parent usually will begin very early to develop in the child a respect for cleanliness, property, and achievement. Overly aggressive behavior will be sharply curtailed. The child's daily schedule will be more systematic and complex than the disadvantaged youngster's, equipping him for the highly skilled and complex world in which he later will have to compete.

The disadvantaged child often comes from a family where privacy is unknown, where the family and the surrounding residents resort to violence for immediate solutions to disputes, and where discipline through the use of force is common.

The child from a disadvantaged background usually is less verbal, more fearful of strangers, less self-confident, less motivated toward scholastic achievement, less competitive in the intellectual realm, less exposed to intellectual stimulation, less varied in his recreational outlets, and less knowledgeable about the world outside his immediate neighborhood. He generally is not "word-bound" and is attuned to practical rather than abstract problems.

The disadvantaged child's restrictive environment frequently causes marked deficiencies in listening, speech, and reading, a lack of understanding of social situations, and inadequate development of problem solving techniques. Typically, he is a physical learner; that is, he has difficulty understanding a concept unless he "does it" with his hands. Years of deprivation and discrimination have left educational and cultural handicaps, themselves causing mental blocks to self-improvement. He usually lives in a crowded, deteriorated neighborhood. His home often is burdened with physical or mental

illness. Divorce and dispersal of family members are prevalent. The family is apt to be matriarchal.

The disadvantaged child has been raised within the value structure of a white middle-class society which extolls certain goals—a good job, social respectability and acceptance, a home in the suburbs—as gratifying and desirable. But society has made it almost impossible for him to achieve these goals. As a result, the toughness, the hostility, and the indifference exhibited by many disadvantaged youth and adults frequently are masks worn to hide their fear and insecurity. An executive of one large industrial corporation which gave physical exams to 1,000 disadvantaged male job applicants reported that their most common ailment was hypertension.

Screened Out in Past

In the culture of poverty, failure is experienced early and reinforced often. A strong sense of failure and suspicion pervades the life of the disadvantaged adult. He may have acquired a police record for the same activity that resulted in nothing more than a reprimand for a youngster from a middle-class family. He is immensely suspicious of decisionmaking in which he has played no part.

In his search for work, for that one value American society holds in highest regard, he is being measured by the standards of a society from which he has been isolated all his life. Because of his lack of education, training, motivation, social values, or because of a police record, he systematically has been screened out from any job offering the possibility of upward mobility. And now the society which has so consistently excluded him is attempting to convince him that the opportunities he was denied in the past are wide open today.

Under the circumstances, it is no surprise that these overtures to join the establishment are met with distrust. As James D. Williams, chief of public affairs for the Office of Economic Opportunity's Community Action Programs, explains: "There is no such thing as going into an area and saying, 'Here I am, ready to help you poor people,' and receiving immediate acceptance. The game in the ghetto is simply not played that way."

Williams emphasizes that "the language in which any message is delivered is as important as the message itself. A common failure among those who aren't quite certain how ghetto people talk among themselves is to resort to the use of the vernacular, or what they consider to be the vernacular. When the vernacular is used accurately, this technique has some limited value, but these instances are outnumbered by negative examples that result in further alienation of the target. The most effective message is one stated in clear, simple English. Keep it honest, keep it simple, and keep it addressed to the target group."

The communications barrier is not insurmountable if the person attempting to communicate appreciates the realities of the situation and the capabilities of the people with whom he is dealing.

"So many middle-class people come into the ghetto thinking that because this man lives in a depressed area, or because he lacks a formal education, he is automatically inferior," says Frank Petti, a program developer for a large eastern manpower training firm. "Well, these people never got an education in school. But they got an education on the street the likes of which no white middle-class man or woman is ever going to get. To survive the ghetto, you have to be extremely clever and alert. These people are smart in their own way, and they can spot you a mile off, they can talk rings around you, they can con you without your ever suspecting that you're being taken. It takes a smart man to do this."

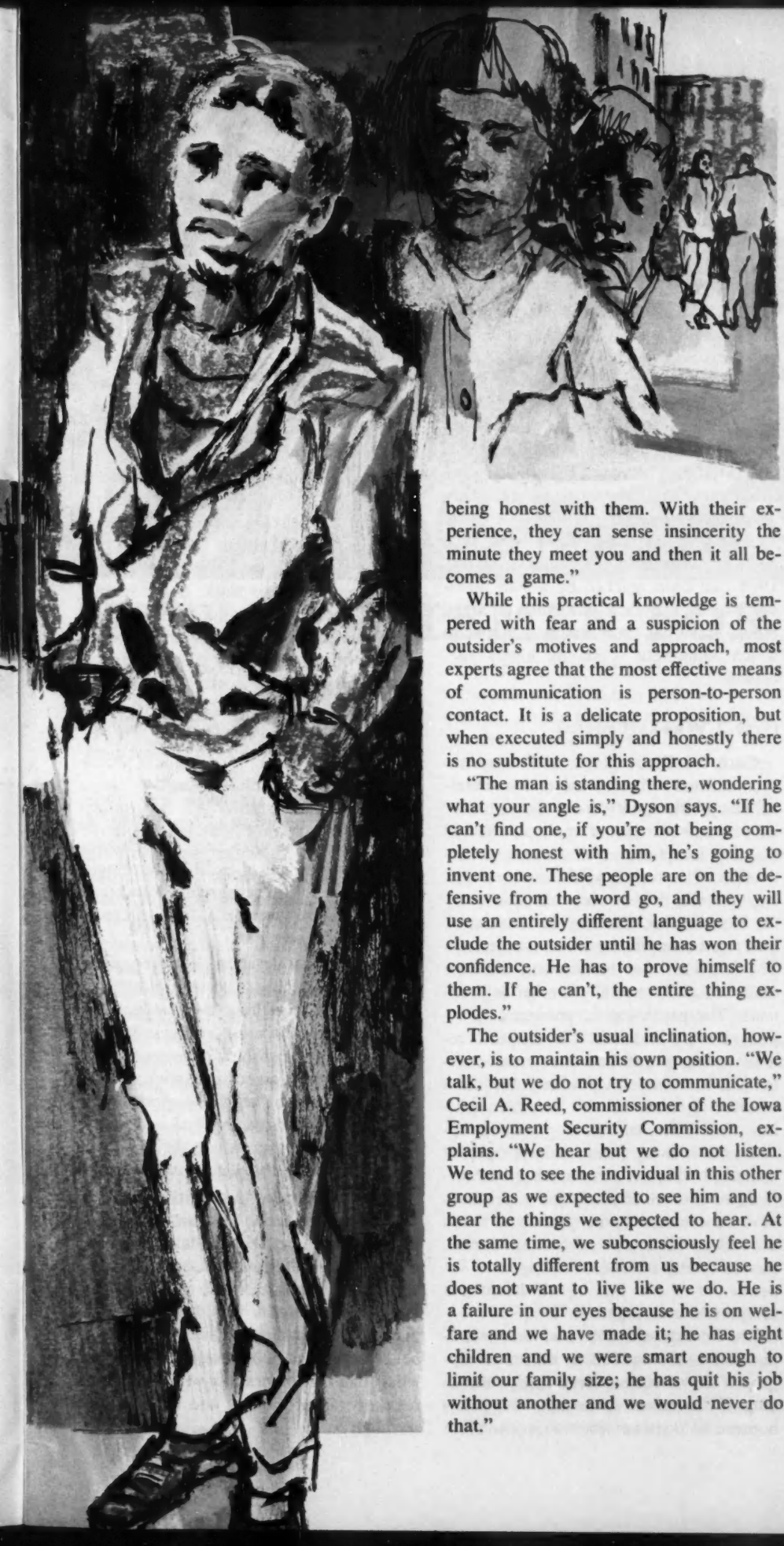
Tests Not Always Valid

Most present personnel qualifications tests (with a base in middle-class values) cannot detect this intelligence. Clara Bell K. Jones, a training and procedures supervisor for the South Carolina State Employment Service, tells of a young man, identified previously as hard-core unemployed, who wanted a job requiring manual dexterity of below-average degree. When he failed the company's standard aptitude test he was advised that another line of work would be more suitable to his abilities. The young man then said he could strip an automobile in 10 minutes. On this basis, he was given the job, and proved to be a satisfactory worker.

'There is no such thing as going into an area and saying, 'Here I am, ready to help you poor people,' and receiving immediate acceptance. The game in the ghetto is simply not played that way.'

It is rarely lack of intelligence or learning ability that inhibits the job performance of a disadvantaged individual. Employers participating in the Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program are finding with increased frequency that their special hire trainees generally are quick to pick up a skill, once their motivation and confidence in the job and themselves have been developed.

Donald Dyson, a coach-counselor for a Baltimore program to train marginal employees, points out that "guys with jail records can sit down and tell you 50 to 60 ways to smuggle grass (marijuana) into the cut (jail), something the company's personnel director could never figure out. That's just because their frames of reference are worlds apart—and this is the biggest problem in their communications. These guys from the ghetto are as inherently smart as any one else. They might not know the right verb to use. But they can get their message across. They don't want to be talked down to, they want to be treated with dignity and respect. And they want to know that you're



being honest with them. With their experience, they can sense insincerity the minute they meet you and then it all becomes a game."

While this practical knowledge is tempered with fear and a suspicion of the outsider's motives and approach, most experts agree that the most effective means of communication is person-to-person contact. It is a delicate proposition, but when executed simply and honestly there is no substitute for this approach.

"The man is standing there, wondering what your angle is," Dyson says. "If he can't find one, if you're not being completely honest with him, he's going to invent one. These people are on the defensive from the word go, and they will use an entirely different language to exclude the outsider until he has won their confidence. He has to prove himself to them. If he can't, the entire thing explodes."

The outsider's usual inclination, however, is to maintain his own position. "We talk, but we do not try to communicate," Cecil A. Reed, commissioner of the Iowa Employment Security Commission, explains. "We hear but we do not listen. We tend to see the individual in this other group as we expected to see him and to hear the things we expected to hear. At the same time, we subconsciously feel he is totally different from us because he does not want to live like we do. He is a failure in our eyes because he is on welfare and we have made it; he has eight children and we were smart enough to limit our family size; he has quit his job without another and we would never do that."

And, of course, the individual that "outsider" is trying to reach is going through exactly the same process.

Another essential principle in the communication process is to work with rather than for the person. "You have to make it crystal clear that your effort is one of togetherness," says Gladys Johnson, "not an attempt to substitute your way of life for his. In dealing with any disadvantaged group, it is what you do with them, not what you do for them."

The average disadvantaged individual rarely reads a newspaper or advertisement. As one State employment service specialist candidly admits: "Generally speaking, the disadvantaged can't read, and those that can need a better reason than we've given them so far to read the stuff we put out." The disadvantaged do watch television, and they often listen to the radio. The most frequently used and most highly trusted form of communication, however, is word of mouth—direct, personal, verbal contact. Communication within a deprived area is rapid. The word of one trusted man can turn off (or on) an entire community in an amazingly short period of time (witness the disturbances caused by rumors).

Little Contact with Ghetto

"Traditionally, local State employment service offices have had little contact with the ghetto resident," says Madison Jones, program coordinator for a Washington-based training firm. "For one thing, the employment office normally has been anywhere but in the ghetto. But more importantly, ghetto residents in the past have experienced failures at trying to obtain jobs through these offices. Once the word got around, the rest of the community shunned them. Unfortunately, those offices just couldn't, within the bureaucratic framework, deliver what they had promised. And in the eyes of the ghetto resident, that failure killed the operation."

A dramatic example of this is seen in the results of a survey of the jobseeking patterns of 450 disadvantaged young men from North Philadelphia. The study revealed that in seeking work only 15 had first contacted an employment office—private or public. Of these 15, only four had registered with the State employment service.

It is commonly assumed that a recruiter coming into a deprived neighborhood

'Once we have convinced the disadvantaged that we are treating them as equals, then we can get them to come to us.'

must be a member of the ethnic group which lives there. If the target population is Negro, for instance, the recruiter must be Negro. It is assumed that by using target group residents the barriers against the outsiders will be dropped immediately. This assumption it not necessarily valid.

It does not take a Negro to recruit among Negroes; the poor are not the only group who can help the poor. Whites can recruit among Negroes, if they possess the empathy and the honesty required by the task. Recruiting specialists with wide experience agree that many Negroes will pay closer attention to a white employee of a company than they will to a black resident who has been hired as a front. They know the white represents the company's operation, and can quickly answer the questions they want answered. For this reason, one employment specialist recommends the use of teams—a member of the target group and a white representative from the company. The former will "open the door," the latter will answer the questions.

The most important consideration is that the recruiter approach the people he is trying to reach in an environment where they feel comfortable and are at an advantage, and that what is promised is promptly delivered. As one State employment service official explains: "It seems that the employment service, for one, has to move out of the manpower office and into the community. Once we have convinced the disadvantaged that we are treating them as equals, then we can get them to come to us."

A number of State employment services are doing that. Minnesota, with a disadvantaged population including both Negroes and American Indians, uses neighborhood workers, jobmobiles, and volunteer residents. Neighborhood workers contact people in their homes, on the street, in pool halls, bars, churches, and at social gatherings. Out-stations have been located in housing projects. Indian representatives work on the State's 10 Indian reservations. Jobmobiles—house trailers equipped as offices—move periodically from place to place.

Other States are making similar efforts, especially since the Federal-State employment security system adopted the human resources development concept. This concept stresses the person-to-person "outreach" approach. Idaho, for example, uses Indians living on and off reservations to channel potential hires to conveniently located field offices of the Idaho Office of Employment. The Indiana State Employment Service reports that 1 of every 14 disadvantaged individuals who filed new applications in its offices during 1968 had been reached by a staff member on an outreach assignment. Many States are using the jobmobile approach which Minnesota is finding highly successful.

First 2 Weeks Crucial

Once the disadvantaged individual has been reached and recruited, the communications problem shifts from one of breaking through to one of maintaining and building acceptance, confidence, and motivation. The first 2 weeks after recruiting, and the first 2 weeks on a job, are the most critical. The highest dropout or quit rate occurs during these two periods. The individual has broken out, but now finds himself in a totally foreign environment. The psychological pressures he experiences are immense. The desire to return to more familiar and more comfortable surroundings is strong. He often assumes a more heavily defensive posture than when initially approached, because he is away from his own base of operation. Unusual problems begin to surface, matters which many job supervisors never considered to be problems. Often the trainee hesitates to relate his doubts, fears, or lack of understanding to a superior out of fear that he will be subject to ridicule and anger.

The honesty, sincerity, and understanding that were required in the initial approach now become increasingly important. If the trainee drops out, it is rarely because he does not want to work. More often than not, an action has been misinterpreted, an impatient word has undermined his confidence, or a problem that might seem trivial to others has developed that can, in a few minutes, destroy what it took weeks to build.

A Baltimore manufacturing firm recruited 23 disadvantaged men for its training program. Seventeen stayed through training and moved into jobs. The six who dropped out along the way did so, their counselor reported, because of family problems, health reasons, difficulties in arranging transportation, or personality conflicts with supervisory personnel—not because they did not want to work.

"You will always lose some from a program for the reasons we have come to expect when working with the disadvantaged," says Frank Petti. "But in my experience, they never drop out because they do not want to work. Some simply cannot make the transition. You must remember that we are attempting to bring them to the point where they can function in an economic society that is foreign to their way of thinking. This requires a basic attitude change on their part, and that is a difficult achievement for anyone.

"These people are taken from their environment and asked to function for 8 hours a day in an alien one. Their habits are being corrected, their behavioral patterns changed. This puts tremendous pressure on them, and calls for increased sensitivity on our part.

"Special consideration, however, does not imply a lack of normal discipline. Discipline is one thing they understand and relate to. The more you give in, the more your relationship is going to deteriorate. They respect discipline, if it's fair. A strict work attitude—strict discipline, with understanding and a positive point of view—is something they respond to. But it must be discipline with empathy."

The solution to the communications problem that exists between America's establishment and the disadvantaged lies within the establishment itself. It is not a matter of substituting a superior language for an inferior one. Rather, it is a matter of recognizing the attitudes and behavioral patterns of the individual for what they are, accepting them as the basic operating premise, and working accordingly.

NEW CRAFTSMEN FOR AN OLD ART

By Margaret M. Troxell

The mystery and romance of creating stained glass are unfolding in a Philadelphia suburb for three young black men and a middle-aged grandmother. The four, who are training at the Willet Stained Glass Studio, constitute approximately a tenth of all registered U.S. apprentices learning this tradition-steeped craft, which dates to about the ninth century in Western Europe. They are only a minute fraction, of course, of the 240,000 apprentices in more than 350 trades registered today with the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training.

The three men on the road to becoming stained glass glaziers are Willie Fulton, Edgar Williams, and James Harris. The fourth apprentice, Rose Martin, is training to become a stained glass artist.

"I learned long ago that today everyone needs an education or a trade to make a living," Fulton said. A high school dropout, he was hired as a helper at the studio some 7 years ago and has completed about half of the 4-year apprenticeship period. He is 27, married, and acquired his high school equivalency while in the Army.

Miss Troxell is a member of the Manpower Administration information staff.

Williams, also 27 and married, started with Willet in 1963 as a helper and is nearing the end of the second year of his training. He, too, dropped out of high school but later earned his equivalency certificate. Williams finds working with stained glass exciting because "you see your work when it is finished and can point to it as something you have done."

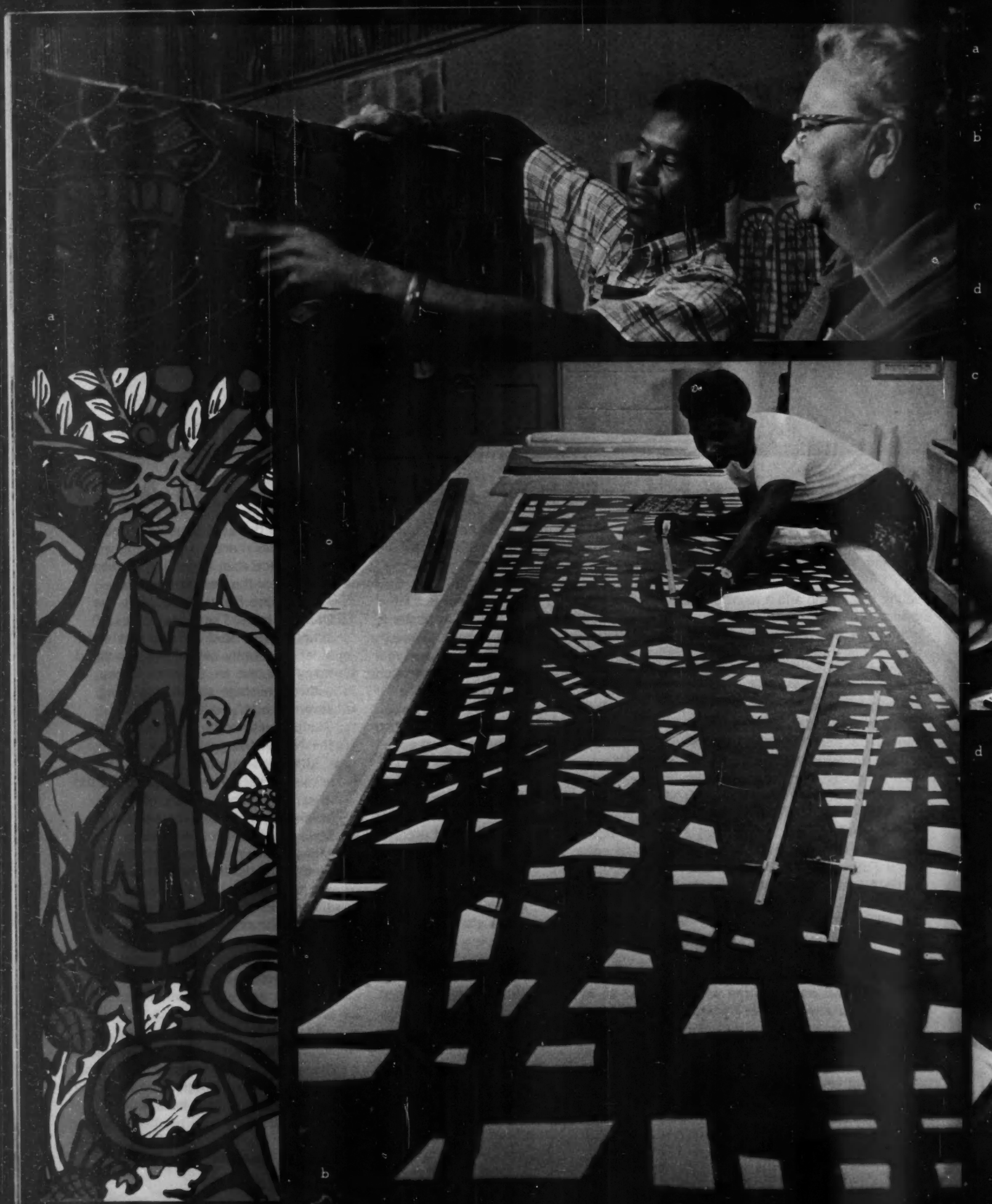
Harris, 24, will reach journeyman status in 15 months. A high school graduate, he has been working at Willet for 4 years.

Mrs. Martin, the mother of four and a grandmother, dreamed from childhood of making a stained glass window. When she finally got a chance to enter training, however, she was well beyond the normal age for beginning apprentices. But her determination, coupled with 2 years of work experience in a stained glass studio in North Carolina and high marks on aptitude tests, resulted in her acceptance. Now she has less than 2 years of her apprenticeship to complete.

The craft of making stained glass windows rose to the height of its glory in the 12th and 13th centuries and contributed greatly to the magnificence of cathedrals in England, France, Spain, Germany, Northern Italy, and the Low Countries. Today, this medieval art is undergoing a renaissance and, according to many authorities, the best stained glass windows are being produced in the United States. There are some 350 stained glass studios in this country. Most are family owned and managed; many are one- or two-man shops, with the average studio employing seven or eight craftsmen. Willet Studios, with some 80 artisans, is the Nation's largest.

Although churches still are the prime market for stained glass, its use is spreading to a variety of other buildings. It is seen increasingly in State capitals, libraries, museums, art galleries, court houses, schools, and even hospitals. It is being used in windows and in decorative room dividers in private homes. And it is being incorporated more and more into the design of store fronts, night clubs, restaurants, financial institutions, airline and steamship offices, travel agencies, and other commercial buildings.

Essentially, the techniques for creating traditional stained glass have changed little over the past 800 years. But workmanship often is better today because of improved tools and materials.



a Edgar Williams and Mrs. Muriel Willet discuss repair work he has completed on a leaded stained glass panel.

b James Harris takes a measurement on a pattern for a faceted stained glass window.

c Rose Martin textures a leaded stained glass panel that is mounted on a glass easel to approximate the conditions under which the finished product will be displayed.

d Willie Fulton smooths the edge of a metal figure for a sculptured gold window.

Labor Dept. photos by Harrison Allen

NEW CRAFTSMEN
continued

Stained glass depends for its effects on light passing through harmoniously arranged colored glass. Thus, in addition to being skilled technicians, stained glass artisans must have a feeling for color and design. They also require some knowledge and understanding of architecture, because their work usually fills a void in a wall or roof and their designs should complement the structures in which they are displayed.

As part of their on-the-job training, stained glass apprentices take a minimum of 144 hours a year of related classroom instruction. Among the subjects studied by Willet apprentices are the history of stained glass; the language of stained glass, which includes instruction on the Bible and the beliefs of various religious denominations; blueprint reading; and mathematics.

After their first year of training, which includes learning craft fundamentals and studio operation, apprentices begin specialized training either as a designer-painter or craftsman-glazier. The painter or artist apprentice concentrates on such techniques as designing, cartooning, tracing, and staining, while the neophyte glazier learns the art of patterning, glass selection and cutting, firing, and setting. Journeyman stained glass glaziers earn an average of from $8,000 to $12,000 a year; designer-painters average from $8,500 to $14,000.

There are some 25 intricate operations from conception to completion of a traditional leaded stained glass window. First, a small-scale study of the window is made, giving an impression of the color and light of the full-sized work. After the design has been approved, a full-sized drawing called a cartoon is prepared, usually in black and white. From the cartoon, a pattern is made to guide the subsequent placing and joining with lead of the many individual pieces of glass.

The glass is then selected and cut to the shape of the paper pattern. Special paint is applied to the individual piece of glass to produce the outline of the cartoon and the desired color. Additional texturing is applied to control the light and bring all the colors into closer harmony. To approximate the conditions in which the finished product actually will be displayed, much of the painting is done while the glass is held up to the light.

The painted pieces are fired in a kiln to fuse the paint and glass. Using the pattern made earlier, the individual pieces of glass are positioned properly and joined together with lead. Each joint is soldered and then the window is waterproofed on both sides, inspected, and shipped in sections to its destination, where it is installed and secured with reinforcing bars.

Modern techniques and materials are being combined with traditional stained glass methods to create new products suited to today's architecture and artistic tastes. Faceted glass, an art form similar to and as old as stained glass, is finding new applications through the use of epoxy, synthetically produced plastic resins that combine toughness and flexibility with high adhesive strength and low shrinkage. Faceted stained glass involves the use of brilliantly colored pieces of glass up to 2 inches thick. The inner surfaces of some of the pieces are chipped or faceted to enhance the design and obtain special effects. The individual pieces are held together with concrete or epoxy to produce windows or decorative panels.

Farbigem windows and panels, a recent innovation, involves the use of an acrylic adhesive. In farbigem, layers of colored glass and clear crystal are laminated with the adhesive to one or both sides of a base of plexiglass.

Another innovation is the use of a thin sheet of sculptured gold- or silver-plated metal laid over jeweled glass. Slits of varying widths are cut in the metal to let the richly colored glass show through.

Stained glass has been a medium of artistic and religious expression for more than a thousand years. By preserving the classic techniques and developing new ones, today's stained glass craftsmen are assuring that this venerable art form has a promising future as well as a distinguished past.

FROM

The hot July sun streamed through the windows of Westinghouse's heavy industrial equipment repair plant in Baltimore, but Wallace Wilson, 26, was too busy to notice. "I've learned more here in 3 months than ever before in my life," said the tall young black man, as he made a final adjustment on a huge electrical engine. "I just built my first motor," he said tapping the engine proudly. "Now I'm gonna test it to see if it works."

"It'll work," said shop foreman Julius Kozma, as the power was thrown on. It did. Kozma nodded and smiled slightly. Other workmen grunted approval. Wilson grinned out of sheer pride.

Three months earlier, Wilson, his wife, and two children were living on $220 a month welfare money. Now he is a valued Westinghouse employee earning about $100 a week and no longer receiving welfare.

"I wish I had a dozen like him," said P. C. Reeves, plant manager.

Wilson is one of hundreds of men and women in Maryland—and thousands across the Nation—who have been moved off welfare into jobs through the Work Incentive (WIN) Program, which is operated by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration in cooperation with the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. A combination of poverty, poor education, and illness brought him to the welfare rolls where he and his family stayed for 2 years.

Wallace Wilson, who is getting on-the-job training as a heavy equipment repairman, adjusts a winch before moving a rolling mill motor field frame.

WELFARE ROLLS TO PAYROLLS

His downhill slide began before he completed the eighth grade. "I was living in Virginia on a farm. My dad had arthritis so I had to drop out of school to finish the crop. Then I just went on farming for awhile." Later he moved to Baltimore, and though he was willing, the doors were closed to good jobs. "Good jobs are hard to get if you got no education," he said.

A couple of years ago he was in a car accident. His left leg was broken and his right one permanently injured. "I tried to get jobs on my own. I got two, but I just gave it up when my leg would pop out. I couldn't make any money anyway. The best I ever did was $1.80 an hour."

Local welfare authorities referred Wilson to the Baltimore WIN Program last winter. While still drawing welfare, he was placed in the Baltimore Public Schools Adult Education Center for an accelerated course designed to enable WIN participants to meet employers' basic literacy requirements. He was there 4 months.

"They taught me arithmetic, English, and history," Wilson said. "It wasn't hard, but a man sitting in a room with 20 women, that's too much." About 85 percent of Baltimore WIN enrollees are women. "But they promised me a good job if I continued, and they put a couple of men in class with me."

Last spring Westinghouse hired Wilson as a trainee at $2.41 an hour. Within 2 months he was boosted to $2.46. Depending on his skill, he can go up to $3.67 an hour.

Wilson is one of 62,000 welfare recipients who had been placed in jobs or skill-training programs through the WIN Program by the beginning of July. Enrollments began in September 1968.

WIN participants receive the broad spectrum of manpower services available through the U.S. Department of Labor, including personal and vocational counseling, orientation, work experience, skill training on the job or in the classroom, remedial or basic education, job placement, and followup services. The overall WIN Program is administered through the various State employment service offices. Under Federal law, appropriate persons over 16 in households receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children are referred to WIN by local welfare offices. Exempt from the referral are the sick, the incapacitated, the elderly, and certain others.

Union Trains Meatcutters

Big businesses such as Westinghouse are not the only Baltimore employers making job and skill-training openings available to WIN participants. Leslie Smith, 37, is learning the meatcutting trade along with 80 other hard-core unemployed men in a Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) project conducted by Local 117 of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of America. He started in May at $2.25 an hour; when he completes his 2-year apprenticeship, he will receive journeyman wages of $4 an hour.

"He had an attendance problem at the beginning," said William G. Bizzari, a former teacher hired by the union to direct the program. "He was a beaten man. He wouldn't talk or look you in the eye. Now he's progressed so well he'll soon be ready to go into apprenticeship with the company which selected him." The union gives trainees 13 weeks of skill training in its own shop before sending them out on their 2-year apprenticeship assignments.

Smith's story is much like Wilson's. An eighth-grade dropout, he went on welfare 5 years ago after his leg was broken by a hit-and-run truck. He received $240 a month to support himself, his wife, and four children.

Wilson volunteered for WIN. "I was tired of welfare," he said. "I want to make my own way. A man can't live on welfare. Before all this (welfare and WIN) I had lots of jobs. I was a custodian, a laborer, but they didn't pay anything and I wasn't getting anywhere."

Smith goes at his work with gusto and skill. He obviously likes carving sides of beef into round, sirloin, and roasts and was looking forward to beginning his apprenticeship at A&P.

The union believes the program is working well. "We got into this because it was the right thing to do and we need some more meatcutters," said Jerry Menapace, president of the 6,000-member local. The union goes beyond mere skill training in preparing the men for their new places in society.

"We teach them about buying on credit," said Menapace. "We try to see that they don't get robbed when they make a loan. We even bring in the police to teach them about narcotics so they don't get stuck in that bag.

"Incidentally, I'm learning a lot myself. I thought I knew what these guys go through—but I've learned. Talk about exploitation! They don't even know where to go to get help when they need it. The least flap and they wind up in jail or on the run."

Welfare mothers seem just as anxious as their male counterparts to get into the job market. Mrs. Mary Haynie, 36, and Mrs. Addie White, 25, both heads of families, early this year took jobs as dietary aids at Baltimore's Providence Hospital. Both women started as trainees and did so well they were hired on a permanent basis.

Their supervisor, Mrs. Catherine Stanley, praises their work and has Mrs. Haynie marked down as supervisory material. Mrs. Haynie herself has no doubt about her abilities. "Next year when the new hospital opens I'll be a supervisor," she

said. "I already have my supervisor's certificate."

Mrs. Haynie, who has eight children, was on welfare 5 years. The monthly grant for herself, her sick husband, and her sons and daughters amounted to $250 a month. Before her husband died in June, she had made up her mind to improve herself. She hired a mature woman to look after her children during the day, for which she was partially reimbursed out of WIN funds, and went into training.

"I didn't know anything to do," she said. "I needed something to fall back on, to help my children. I wanted to learn a trade."

After 2 weeks at the Adult Education Center, she entered training at the hospital last March. She was hired as a permanent employee in May and immediately entered and completed a 6-week supervisory training course. Her pay is $112 every 2 weeks, which added to the social security she now draws, makes it no longer necessary for her to receive welfare.

"It's a relief to know you're out working, that you're trying," she said. "I would like to go back for my final 2 years of high school and get my diploma."

Welfare Check Reduced

Mrs. White has similar ambitions. Poverty forced her out of school in the ninth grade and she sees education as the key to a better life for herself and her three children.

"I was on welfare 5 years," she said. "I hated it. I wasn't getting enough money—for rent, food, or the kids' clothes. I'm doing much better now. Plus I enjoy working." Like Mrs. Haynie she earns $112 every 2 weeks. Her welfare grant, formerly $164 a month, has been reduced to $70.

Under the legislation authorizing the WIN Program (title IV of the Social Security Act), men are cut off welfare when they go to work full time (in some States 30 hours weekly, in others 35). Women are not. A woman participant has her welfare payment reduced by two-thirds of whatever amount her salary exceeds $30 a month. For example, if a woman earns $180 a month, her monthly welfare payment is reduced by $100 (two-thirds of $150). She also can get supplementary assistance and child care if her family needs exceed the total amount she receives from her job and welfare.

Total enrollment in the Maryland WIN Program through June 1969 was 1,809 (1,467 of them in Baltimore). Of these, 87 percent were women. Women predominate because the program is limited to welfare recipients with dependent children. Ninety-five percent of the participants were under 45 years old; 82 percent were school dropouts. Four of five lacked the education, skill, or experience needed to get a decent job.

By the end of June, 353 WIN participants had been given classroom and work training and moved into permanent, full-time jobs. More than half were working in the private sector. Wages ranged up to $2.95 an hour. Ninety were earning $2 an hour or more, and 47 were being paid less than $1.60.

A team of State employment service specialists is responsible for seeing that WIN participants receive whatever mix of manpower services they need to find and hold a job. A typical team includes a counselor (who serves as team leader), a manpower specialist, a coach, a work-training specialist, and a clerk-typist. The key specialist in many cases is the coach, usually a community worker without a formal degree, drawn from the participant's neighborhood. The coach visits the participant at home, establishes a working relationship, and explains the services available to him, such as medical aid and child care.

After 13 weeks of on-the-job training, Garnetta Thrower, 20, is a full-time bookkeeper for the Salvation Army. Her earnings have made it possible for her welfare payments to be reduced substantially.

For Gloria Eitel, WIN training is learning hairdressing at a cosmetology school. After 1,500 hours of theory and practice, she will take the State test for her beautician's license.

Job preparation for WIN trainee Delcina Johnson begins with classroom work at the Baltimore Adult Education Center.

WIN participant Leslie Smith hones his skills at a school conducted by Baltimore Local 117 of the Amalgamated Meat Cutters and Butcher Workmen of America to prepare the disadvantaged for apprenticeship training.

While in training, WIN participants get a $30-a-month incentive allowance from the U.S. Department of Labor. Welfare funds pay for transportation and lunch —about $20 a month in Maryland.

Welfare officials are responsible for making day-care arrangements. Children may be placed in day-care centers operated privately or by the State with the Department of Social Services picking up the tab. Sixty dollars per month per child is allocated for day-care arrangements in private homes approved by welfare authorities. WIN participants who make their own day-care arrangements get a maximum of $60, no matter how many children they have.

One of the most important components of the Baltimore WIN Program is basic or remedial education. Trainees are referred to the Baltimore Public Schools Adult Education Center where they normally spend 18 weeks in the classroom. "We have no fixed cycle," said Mrs. Phyllis Cooper, the schools' assistant director. "The average is 18 weeks but some stay 7 months. We simply try to pull them up to the level of education needed by the job for which they're training."

Students attend school 5 hours daily, and receive counseling and other supportive services. "We try to bring in consumer and vocational education," said Mrs. Cooper.

Students also are taught to fill out job applications and take tests, since most employers test new employees. Professionals from the community are invited in periodically to talk to the students about health needs, social problems, and legal aid. Speakers have included the mayor, police officials, and representatives of the Better Business Bureau.

Teaching Relates to Life

Tape-recorded lessons come with books so students can follow along more readily. One subject taught is "How to Write a Good Business Letter." A sample letter goes like this:

Hey Landlord,

When we moved in here, you promised to paint this apartment in 6 months. We've been here a year and I haven't seen a paint brush in the building. How come? You better get with it, or it'll be big trouble for you.

The best,
Joe.

"We relate teaching to everyday life," said Mrs. Cooper.

Edmond Jones, chief of Baltimore's Public Assistance Services, said that at first welfare recipients feared they would be forced into the WIN Program against their will. But that hasn't happened so far and "we feel much better about it now," he said.

Jones still has some reservations about the program, however. "Many people on welfare look fit and act fit but they're sick" and cannot work, he said. And since only people receiving Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) are eligible for the WIN Program, it touches only part of the welfare problem, Jones pointed out.

Jones questions the relevancy of some of the job training under WIN. Some people, for example, are being trained as key punch operators, a skill he feels is on the way out. People trained in obsolete trades one day will find themselves back on the street unemployed, Jones said.

"I don't agree that getting everyone into employment is the total solution," he said. "I don't know if the job market can absorb them, or if many of them are really employable." Nationally, only 8 percent of all welfare recipients are employable, Jones contended. "The economy is such that many of these people can't be used." Welfare recipients need more education before being referred to WIN and more day-care centers must be established, Jones said.

Mrs. Kathryn Canaras, Public Welfare Supervisor for Baltimore's Department of Social Services, said WIN is doing better at finding jobs for welfare recipients than similar programs in the past. "A lot of volunteers have been brought in by word of mouth and that says a lot for the program," she said. "What discourages me is the very limited number of slots."

Baltimore WIN officials concede some of these points. Day-care facilities obviously are inadequate, not only in Baltimore but throughout the Nation. And for fiscal year 1970, the city has been allocated 1,600 slots for a welfare population estimated by Jones at 40,000 families, half of them on AFDC.

But WIN officials defend job placement and training activities. Baltimore WIN director Vernon Brown points out that the question always arises whether people should be trained for jobs that exist now or those that will exist in the future. In the face of urgent need, any program is bound to be drawn in the direction of jobs presently available, he said.

He was backed up by Mrs. Lois Quinn, WIN area supervisor for Maryland. "If a man successfully works at a job for, say 5 years, he probably won't go back on welfare, even if the job becomes obsolete," she said. "He learns to dress properly, to report for work on time, and generally becomes job-oriented." She feels that such a man usually will get a job, particularly in the tight labor market Americans have become accustomed to.

News & Notes

State employment services should question age requirements in job orders from employers, Manpower Administrator Malcolm R. Lovell, Jr., said. In a message to State employment security agencies outlining their responsibilities under the Age Discrimination in Employment Act of 1967, he said: "The burden of proof that age is a bona fide occupational qualification is the responsibility of the employer, the employment agency, or the labor organization which relies upon it." The local employment service office will make a determination based on information available from the U.S. Department of Labor's Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions which will carry out the investigations and issue regulations and interpretations for the administration of the law. The Age Discrimination Act prohibits arbitrary age discrimination in employment against people 40 to 65 years old. Airline pilots in carrier operations and apprentices are the only job classifications so far exempt.

* * *

Despite some improvement in recent years, the U.S. Department of Labor finds that farmworkers are still among the lowest paid in the Nation. The national average farm wage for 1968 was $1.43 an hour, without room and board, up 10 cents from 1967. In that same period, the average wage for production workers in manufacturing rose to $3.01 an hour, a boost of 18 cents.

* * *

John L. Wilks, a one-time longshoreman, has been appointed to the new position of Deputy Assistant Secretary of Labor for Compliance. Wilks, 45, will direct the Office of Federal Contract Compliance, responsible for assuring equal employment opportunity among Federal contractors and subcontractors as required under Executive Order 11246. For the past 11 years, Wilks has been a San Francisco public relations executive. Last year he established the Executive Search Agency, a firm specializing in placing minority group members in executive jobs. A graduate of West Virginia State College, he got his masters degree from Boston University in 1956 and did postgraduate work at Harvard.

Secretaries, stenographers, and typists are not about to become obsolete. Despite the latest sophisticated office equipment, the need for their services is not diminishing. Their numbers, in fact, will increase, according to "Occupational Employment Patterns for 1960 and 1975," a recently completed study sponsored by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration. In 1960 there were 2,387,000 secretaries, stenographers, and typists, about 3½ percent of the work force. By 1975, there will be 3,900,000, comprising almost 4½ percent of all jobholders. The fastest growth in these occupations will be in finance, insurance, real estate, education, health, and government.

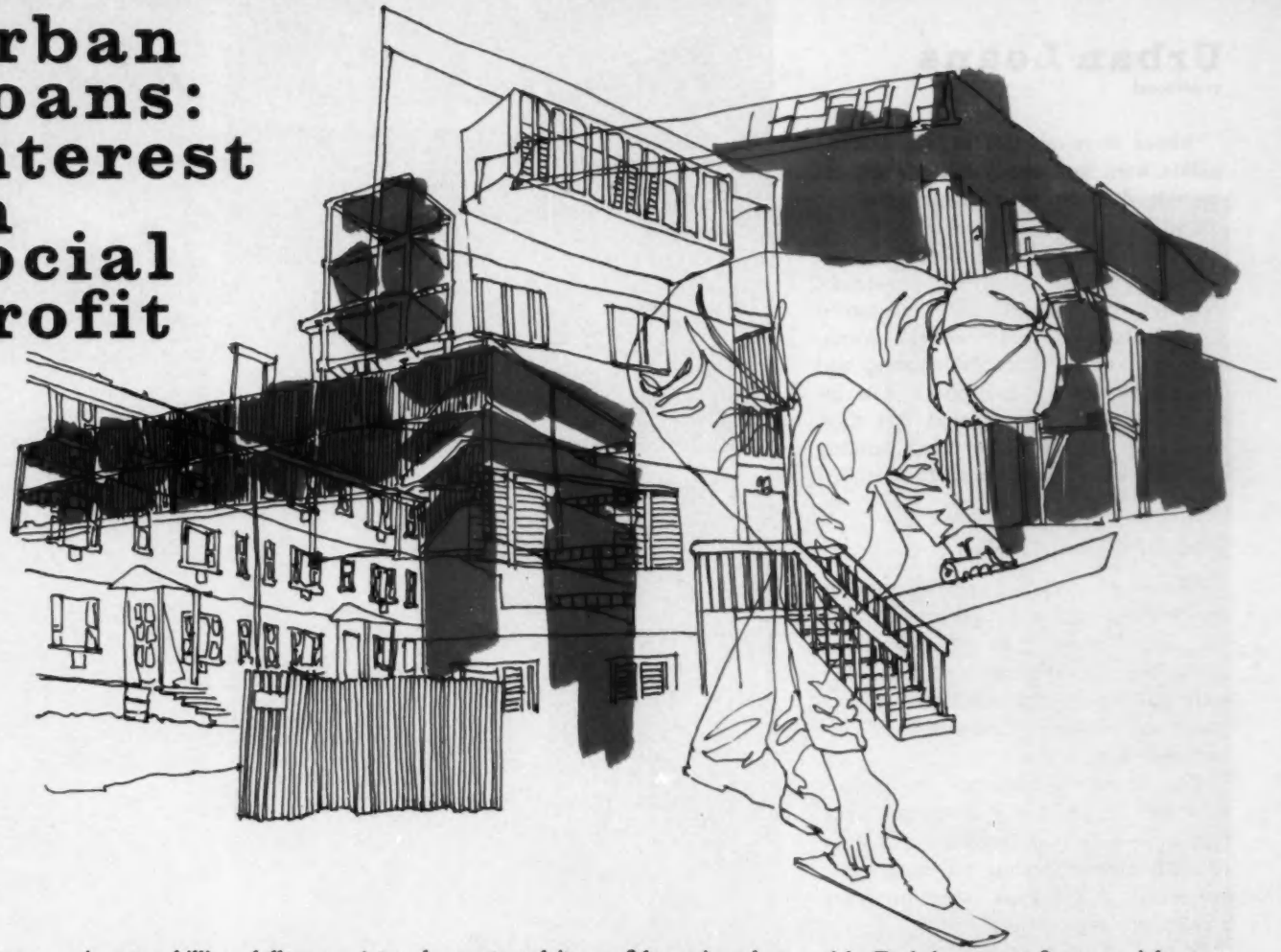
* * *

Minority group members now make up 14 percent of the staffs of the 50 State employment security agencies, up from 12 percent 2 years ago, a survey by the U.S. Department of Labor shows. While overall staff increased from 58,000 people in 1967 to more than 63,000 in 1969, a boost of 9 percent, minority employees rose 30 percent, from 6,800 to nearly 9,000. The number of Negro employees rose from 5,400 to more than 6,800; Spanish Americans from 800 to nearly 1,200; American Indians from about 100 to more than 300; and Orientals from about 500 to almost 600. By job level, increases in minority employment were: 39 percent in clerical-office jobs; 27 percent in professional-technical jobs; and 28 percent in managerial-supervisory jobs. Eight percent of all Negro employees were in managerial-supervisory jobs in 1969; 33 percent in professional-technical jobs; 50 percent in clerical-office work; and 9 percent in custodial service.

* * *

More than 2 million youngsters have entered the Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) since enrollments began in January 1965. By January of this year, 630,000 had enrolled in the in-school program, 360,000 in the out-of-school program, and nearly 990,000 had been placed in summer jobs. More than 20,000 additional youths have entered the Corps since January. More than $1.3 billion has been allocated to NYC since it began.

Urban Loans: interest in social profit



"When you invest a billion dollars to help the cities you learn some things," the Institute of Life Insurance says in recent ads.

One of the things the insurance industry learned, according to the ads, is that a lot of myths are abroad in the land about our cities—myths that the cities can't be saved, or that government can solve the urban problem all alone, or that business can solve the urban problem all alone. The industry also discovered that it couldn't even begin to invest in the revitalization of America's cities without first changing the conservative ground rules that ordinarily govern the investment of insurance funds.

"We learned that loans in the urban core required a complete turnabout in company attitudes," an insurance executive explained. "In making investments, we have always gone after the best locations and avoided the ghettos. Now, if an investment looks too good in the ordinary way, it does not qualify under the urban program."

Earlier this year, the insurance industry demonstrated its confidence in urban core loans by committing a second billion dollars for the construction of housing and business and community service facilities in inner cities. Although the companies are making loans on projects they once shunned, they are not giving money away. They are investing, and they expect a return on their investments. Moreover, many of the loans are well protected by Federal Housing Administration (FHA), Veterans Administration, or State insurance: About nine-tenths of the housing loans carry such insurance, as do many of the investments in nursing homes, clinics, and nonprofit hospitals.

The insurance companies in the urban investment program reserve the right to make their own loans. Loan commitments are reported to a central clearinghouse set up at the Life Insurance Association of America, an industry trade organization, which decides whether loans qualify under the $2 billion program. Each investment must be one not financed under normal company lending practices for reasons of type, location, or risk. Each loan must finance a job-creating enterprise or a community service, or improve housing conditions for inner-city people. Housing loans may cover the construction of new units or the rehabilitation of older ones. They may be made for single or for multiple occupancy structures. They may also be made to help low- and moderate-income families who want to move out of the urban core areas to get housing in other neighborhoods.

Some of the insurance companies have placed almost all of their prorated share of the program in housing. Others have concentrated on job-producing businesses and services.

The insurance industry launched its "urban action program" in September 1967 when 163 life insurance companies pledged a total of $1 billion for urban core loans. By the spring of this year the $1 billion mark in investments was passed, and the companies were underway on their second $1 billion commitment.

Urban Loans

continued

About three-quarters of the first $1 billion went into nearly 64,000 units of housing. Investments also were made in medical and dental facilities, office buildings for social service agencies, stores, shopping centers, wholesale businesses, factories, warehouses, a Negro-owned bank building, a Negro college dormitory, and many other job-creating and community service enterprises. The insurance companies estimated that their loans for purposes other than housing had created or retained more than 30,000 inner-city jobs.

Vital Services Funded

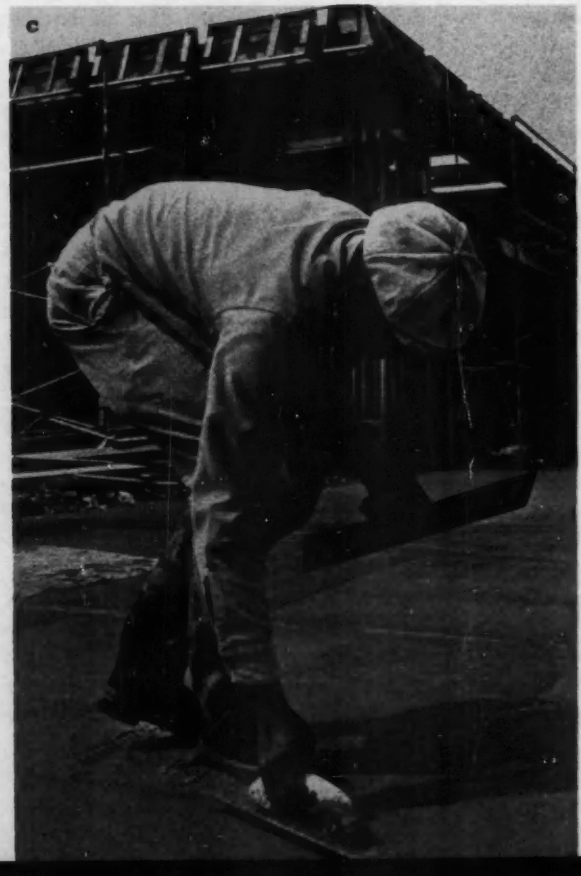
The 163 companies participating in the first $1 billion program hold over 90 percent of the $189 billion in assets of the U.S. life insurance industry. They were putting into the urban action program only about 7 percent of their current cash flow.

This is not to underrate the investment and the progress it is buying. Many localities—and vital services—that have critically needed funding for many years are finally getting their hands on some private mortgage money.

A case in point is the pilot medical project sponsored by the National Medical Association (NMA) Foundation in Washington, D.C. The NMA, most of whose 5,000 doctor members are Negroes, has obtained from the Equitable Life Assurance Society a commitment for 90 percent of the costs of land, building, and equipment for a combination nursing home-community health center. The $3 million facility, now under construction, will provide comprehensive health care to residents of Washington's inner city. It is the first of many like it that the NMA Foundation hopes to build in disadvantaged neighborhoods across the country.

More is involved in the construction of the Washington nursing home-health center than needed medical care services. The center also means jobs—now and later. The project has a black architect and a black builder. Its construction workers are Negroes, a number of them from the immediate neighborhood, and at least 150 people will get jobs in the nursing home.

a


c

d

Insurance company funds are financing . . .
a a 270-unit residential development in Newark . . .
b small apartments in Boston . . .
c a medical facility in Watts . . .
d a community service center in Brooklyn . . .
e a big hair salon, wig manufacturing, and beauty shop supply firm in Chicago. . .

To feed qualified manpower into this and similar projects it plans to set up in the future, the NMA Foundation has launched a Health Careers Development Program. With funds for a pilot project obtained from a private foundation, the program identifies people with potential in the health field and helps them get training and jobs.

Of all the insurance company urban core investments made to provide community services or jobs in the first billion program, more than half went into nursing homes, nonprofit hospitals, and medical and dental group practice facilities. Some of the other loans made for these purposes were:

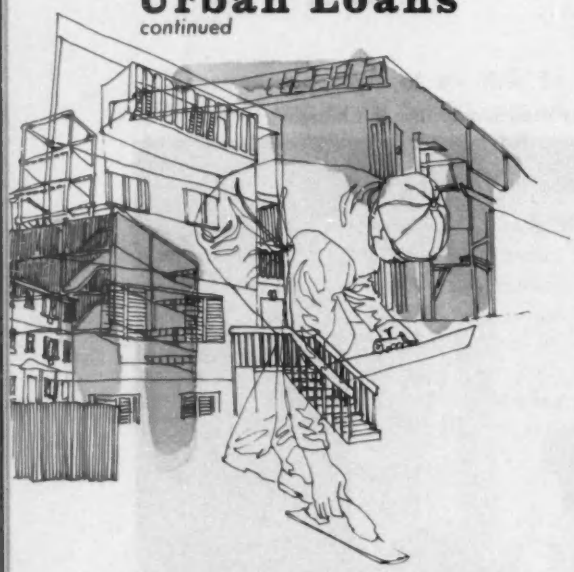
- $6,000,000 for a new wing of a hospital in Cincinnati's Avondale neighborhood, the scene of riots 2 years ago. Some 400 people will be employed in this wing in jobs ranging from nurses to maids.
- $2,412,000 to build a nursing home to be owned and operated by Negro doctors in the Milwaukee core area.
- $1,450,800 to Meharry Medical College of Nashville, Tenn., a Negro medical school, for construction of a health center near the college to provide care for low-income people in the area.
- $750,000 for a nursing home in St. Paul which is already completed, and more than $1 million for a nursing home to be built on the fringe of the Minneapolis inner-city area. Both are enterprises of Archie Givens, a Negro who plans to open inner-city nursing homes in a number of other areas.

Commercial and industrial enterprises received only about $120 million of the insurance companies' first billion in urban core investments. Some large single investments of this type were made, however, and the insurance companies appear willing to commit a greater share of their urban action monies to such projects in the second round of loans.

In one industrial project, the Northwestern National Life Insurance Company purchased 52 acres of land in Minneapolis from the Chicago & North

Urban Loans

continued



Western Railway. In a joint venture with a local construction firm, Northwestern Insurance is developing the areas into an industrial park. The land is zoned heavy industrial, and is located in the middle of a declining city area scheduled for urban renewal.

Merrill Rovang, Northwestern Nation's mortgage and real estate department manager, said his company is developing the land privately, with no subsidy at this point as funds for urban renewal are not yet available. "We anticipate $15 to $18 million worth of new construction here over the next 5 years," Rovang said. "We expect light industrial use of the land, and are looking for high job density businesses, with upward mobility jobs and minority ownership."

Northwestern's reason for the investment?

"If we were going in for profit," Rovang explained, "we would go to a suburban area rather than to this type of acreage, which contains railroad tracks, five bridges, and an old roundhouse. The only way to go into property like this is with a social motivation, with a willingness to take both a high risk and a low rate of return. We want to serve as a vehicle to bring in minority entrepreneurs who may not have as big a financial start as other businessmen."

Another large industrial complex is under development in Chicago by the Northwestern Mutual Life Insurance Company of Milwaukee. Northwestern Mutual purchased 64 acres of urban land from the Chicago & North Western Railway. The project, called the Northwestern Center for Industry, will cost $15 to $20 million when completed within the next few years. Office buildings, factories, and warehouses will be constructed to meet the needs of individual businesses leasing sites. Some 2,000 to 2,500 permanent jobs will be generated by the complex.

A sampling of other business loans:

- Prudential put $5.4 million into construction of an industrial building to house the Control Data Corporation in Minneapolis. Control Data hires and trains people from the city's core areas for computer assembly jobs. Prudential also is lending about $160,000 for the purchase of land and a building to house offices and a candy factory for Pride Economic Enterprises, Inc., in Washington, D.C. A ghetto-born organization, Pride began with U.S. Department of Labor funds in 1967 as a 4-week summer rat control and alley cleaning program. Since then, it has branched out into the landscaping, painting and maintenance, and automobile service businesses.
- New York Life made a loan of $3.5 million to the Citizens Building Corporation of Atlanta, a wholly-owned subsidiary of the city's only Negro-owned bank, for the construction of a 12-story office building in an urban redevelopment area.
- Massachusetts Mutual Life made a $1,375,000 loan for a shopping center in the Cincinnati ghetto. The center will house small shops run by minority businessmen.
- John Hancock helped finance Boston's first black-owned supermarket. The company also invested in a black-managed gasoline station and movie theater owned by State Enterprises, Inc., a community project aimed at involving Negroes in business enterprise.

More than 75 percent of the first $1 billion invested by the insurance industry went for housing. But in the second billion of its urban core investments, the industry hopes to increase the amount of funds going into job-creating enterprises.

In announcing the second round of investments, Francis E. Ferguson, chairman of the insurance industry's Committee on Urban Problems, said:

"Although housing is of critical importance, we are hopeful that a larger proportion of the second billion dollar program can be devoted to the creation of new jobs for core area residents and to the development of minority business enterprises, since these are increasingly vital needs of our inner cities. Dollars invested in job creation can produce significant 'multiplier effects' which go far beyond the initial amount invested. A new job in the urban core not only means family income for the newly employed worker, but allows him to pay rent for better housing to upgrade his living conditions in the inner city."

Ferguson said there is great potential for assisting business development of the inner cities if Federal programs can be adapted to meet the needs of minority businessmen and if loan guaranty programs can be developed or modified to attract more funds from private lending institutions. Where government resources are applied to guarantee loans or provide assistance for urban business development, they can produce another type of multiplier effect, he said, by enabling substantially greater amounts of private business capital to flow into these areas than the dollars of government support required to stimulate it.

Bigger Investment Urged

Increased investments in inner-city areas, particularly in minority-owned businesses, would be welcomed by the Urban League and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). Both organizations feel that the insurance industry program is a good beginning but that more private funds must be channeled into ghetto development.

"When $2 billion is parcelled out, it makes only a drop in the bucket from the private sector," said Adolph Holmes, Urban League associate program director.

William Morris, NAACP insurance program coordinator, would like to see more of the insurance funds go to black entrepreneurs. "Our whole economy would be strengthened if we develop stronger black businesses," he said. Morris suggested that Negro loan correspondents be used by the insurance companies to allocate their inner-city investment funds and to service and process the loans. The Nation's 3,000 black mortgage firms are in a better position to judge ghetto needs than white firms, he said.

. . . and a new building for a Spanish-language newspaper in Los Angeles .

The emphasis on housing in the first phase of the program resulted in the financing of more than 34,000 one-to-four-family dwelling units and over 37,000 multifamily units by last May. Some companies committed themselves to housing more heavily than others. Prudential—as the Nation's largest insurance company, it has the largest prorated share of the total industry investment—placed 80 percent ($157 million) of its commitment in the first round of investments in housing. For the second phase of the program, Prudential hopes to cut housing investments to about half of its commitment.

The urban insurance funds financed some large projects. Massachusetts Mutual Life lent $2.2 million to the Asociación Caña of Puerto Rico for a 140-unit housing project in San Juan. The project qualifies for Federal rent supplement payments, thus making it possible for moderate-income tenants to live there. The same company is financing a $3.8 million garden apartment development in a Washington, D.C., suburb where Federal rent supplements will also be available to qualified tenants.

Prudential lent $5.5 million for a large housing development in a Mexican American section of Los Angeles, and New York Life invested over $2 million in two Tennessee projects for 224 families currently living in substandard dwellings.

In Boston, the John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Company has earmarked $10 million for a pioneer housing program. The money will finance 400 units to be built for low-income families on vacant, city-owned land in various parts of Boston. Using the "in-fill" method of construction, builders will maneuver precast concrete walls, floors, and stairways into place in a fraction of the time conventional methods require.

A number of problems in the urban action program were cited by insurance company executives. One official said that many of the individuals and groups getting loans were inexperienced. As a result, considerable time was required to discuss possible investments, to guide many of the nonprofit sponsors in setting up housing projects or businesses, and to help businessmen who had never before been involved in construction arrangements. There were also firms designated to manage large housing projects who lacked managerial experience with projects of any great size.

Some insurance companies want to make greater use of Negro contractors, architects, engineers, lawyers, and management executives in the planning and construction of projects but have encountered a shortage of qualified individuals and firms. A spokesman for one company mentioned difficulties in assuring that minority workers were employed in the construction of buildings financed by his company's loans.

Alan E. Pinado, an assistant vice president of New York Life, believes the Government can take a number of steps to spur investments in urban core areas. Rent supplements, now limited to housing developments which have FHA mortgage insurance, should be made available to projects built with uninsured or so-called conventional mortgage funds, Pinado said.

Pinado favors making Federal mortgage insurance available on loans for such job-creating facilities as office buildings, shopping centers, and industrial buildings located in or near urban renewal and model city areas. This would be similar to the FHA insurance now available for nursing homes and group medical and dental practice facilities, he said. However, legislation does not now provide insurance for purposes such as those proposed by Pinado except in certain instances where commercial ventures are directly connected with housing projects.

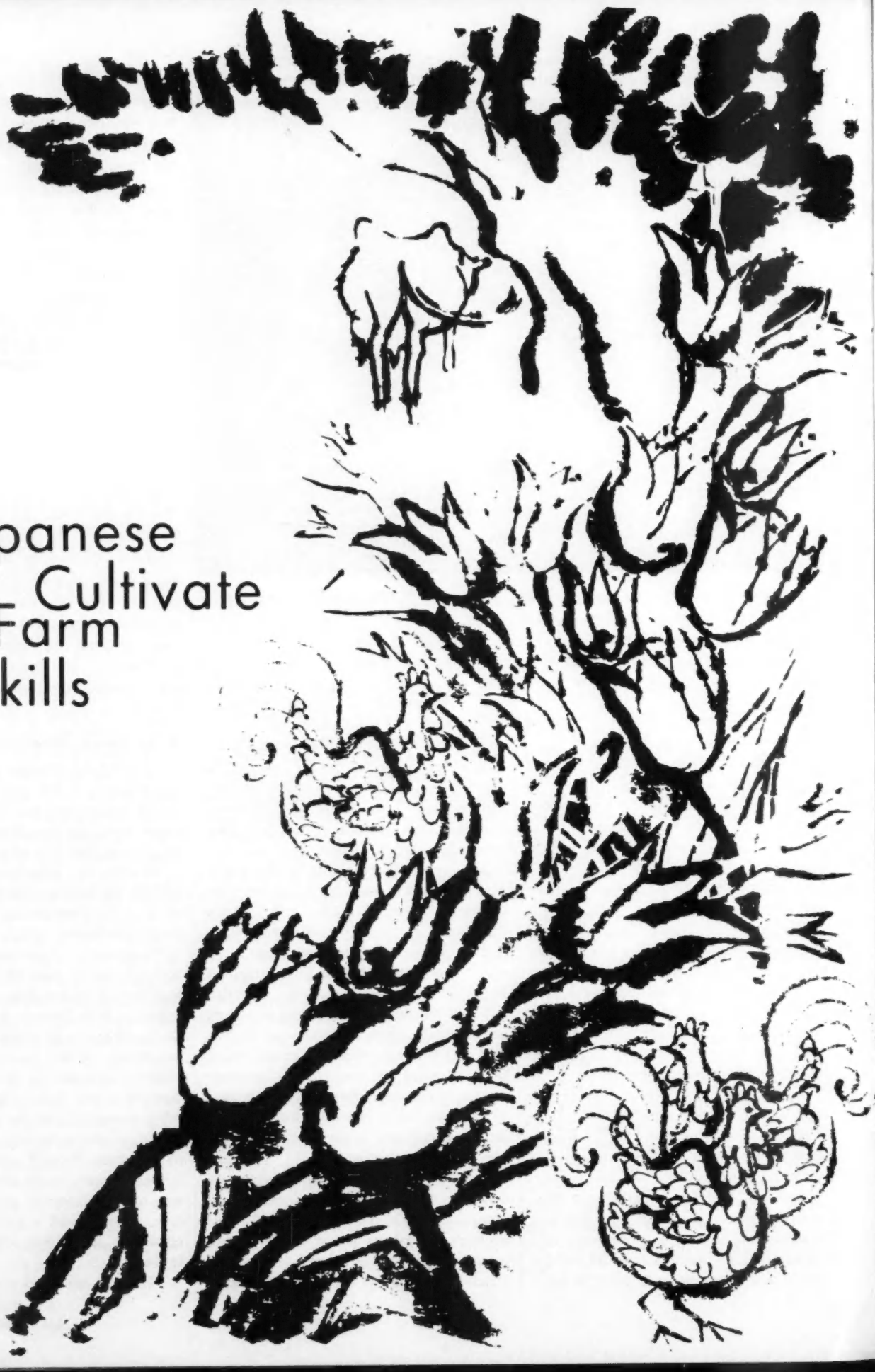
Assessment Must Wait

It will be a number of years before the success of the insurance industry's urban action program can be assessed solely from the standpoint of return on investment. But in a recent speech, Blake T. Newton, Jr., president of the Institute of Life Insurance, argued forcefully for business involvement in social and economic problems:

"Businessmen have come to recognize that it is in the vital interest of business to direct a substantial share of its resources—both human and material—to the economic and social redress of the people our society has passed by. It is vitally in our interest because if it is not done, then our free economic system of self-government and the principles which give that system life may not survive our own lifetime. We will either suppress the just aspirations of the disadvantaged and lose our fundamental principles of freedom, justice, and equality, or we will reanimate those principles by living up to them.

"There is no third choice."

Japanese Cultivate U.S. Farm Skills



By Ernie Hood

Marumichi Kato's grandfather had six cows on the family farm in Japan. On the same acreage, his father has 20, and Marumichi plans to raise 100. Marumichi is one of hundreds of young Japanese training on U.S. farms in the West in an effort to transmit America's amazing agricultural know-how to his crowded homeland.

Marumichi and Yoshiichi Tijima, both 21, are working and studying on the 165-acre Washington State dairy farm of Mr. and Mrs. Robert McGuire. From their hosts they have learned that "with machinery you are able to do many things we are not." As Yoshiichi points out, "much of our milking in Japan is still by hand, whereas here on this farm one person can milk 70 cows."

The governments of the United States and Japan, in cooperation with the National 4-H Club Foundation, are sponsoring this 3-year-old international agricultural manpower training program. Some 300 Japanese have already graduated and returned to their homeland. Another 350 continue their quest for knowledge on American farms and in classrooms.

People Want Varied Diet

Although the program is an exercise in international diplomacy, it is rooted in certain immutable economic facts. Japan's economy is unbalanced. Its modern industry has lifted the island nation to third place, after the U.S. and Russia, in gross national product. But its farming has lagged badly and until recent years more people worked in agriculture than in industry, aggravating a shortage of skilled manpower in manufacturing.

American agriculture, on the other hand, is so advanced that in 1967 farm employment was less than 5 million out of a total labor force of more than 75 million. For every American working on a farm, there are four in manufacturing production jobs alone.

The Japanese are anxious to close the great gap between their industry and agriculture. Indeed, it is imperative that they do so. Japan's land area is less than the size of California, and only 15 percent of it is arable. Almost all suitable soil has been brought under cultivation, and the nation could feed its estimated 100 million population if the people were content with their traditional diet, mainly fish and rice.

But as they grow more prosperous, the people are demanding more meat, milk, cheese, citrus fruits, and eggs. Consequently, Japan must now import about 20 percent of its food. Its best hope to get more out of the soil with less labor, and to free more manpower for industry, is to master U.S. techniques.

Marumichi and Yoshiichi have not only studied our farming technology but also have learned in detail about U.S. business practices and distribution outlets. They are apt and willing students. "We'd hire them both tomorrow as permanent hands if we had the opportunity," the McGuires say.

However, Yoshiichi has plans of his own. "In Japan I will inherit my father's dairy farm," he says. "We have only 15 cows, but here I have learned that 50 acres of ground like ours should support up to 50 cows. We must make changes, we must obtain milking equipment and other machinery. I will speak with my father in the course of time. I will be patient and in time he will listen.

"I must not go back and tell my elders I have learned 'all' in America; no, this would be disrespectful, and they would not listen. So I will take the time to change their thinking gradually, to get them to realize that what was good practice in my grandfather's time is not good practice now."

Marumichi adds: "We now waste very much. I, too, will inherit my father's farm, but where we now have 20 cows someday I will have 100, and I will help bring needed milk to my people at a price they can afford. My father is progressive, he may listen now. His father had only six cows, my father has 20. We must even think in terms of milk processing plants."

Hisanori Tsuneda, 22, who has completed his training, believes that despite the difference in the scope of farming in the two countries, Japanese farmers can adapt American methods. He worked on a farm in Myrtle Point, Ore., where bulbs are raised for daffodils and irises. "I raise tulips in Japan," he said. "Here it is on a big scale. In Japan each farm is on a small scale—maybe just one acre per farm. But if Japanese farmers get together we can do some things the same as in America." Hisanori explained that he thought farmers in his native land could duplictae American bigness and efficiency by joining together in cooperatives and sharing machinery.

The training program involves a continuing 2-year course of work and study for carefully selected Japanese young people. Under an agreement entered into in May 1966, between the Japanese Agricultural Training Council and the National 4-H Club Foundation, a maximum of 400 can be in training in the United States at any one time. Cooperating in the program are the Embassy of Japan, the U.S. Departments of Labor, State, and Agriculture, and the employment services in the seven participating States: Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Nebraska, Oregon, and Washington.

Trainees Study English

Trainees are selected in Japan by the Japanese Agricultural Training Council. They must be between 18 and 30 years of age and be high school graduates or have completed the equivalent in technical institutional training. Other requirements are that they have a farm background and intend to make agriculture a career. The average age is about 20. All trainees prepare for the program by studying English and American culture and farming practices, including farm machinery operation.

Training formats vary slightly with each group, but most trainees spend their first month in the United States in an intensified English language course with a brief introduction to American culture, history, and agriculture. They then are assigned in small groups to host farms for 3 months of general work training. The following 2 months are devoted to more classroom study of English and basic agriculture. The last 18 months are spent in work and classroom training in the individual trainee's special area of interest.

The selection of host farms and the assignment of trainees is made by the 4-H Club Foundation. It also selects the universities and colleges for classroom training. Classroom training expenses are paid by the Japanese Agricultural Council.

The State employment services supervise the signing of agreements with host farmers to employ the trainees, and employment service representatives pay

Mr. Hood is a U.S. Department of Labor information officer in Seattle.

periodic visits to encourage them in their work and training and to check on program progress.

The program is largely self-sustaining. Wages paid to the trainees enable them to meet the costs of overseas transportation, travel within the U.S., classroom training, nonoccupational medical expenses and life insurance, and subsistence.

Trainees are encouraged to participate in the life of their host communities through school and church organizations, as well as the 4-H and Agriculture Department Extension Service programs. Their success at making themselves at home in America and their eagerness to learn is typified by Skatashi Seino, 26, and Masanori Kobayashi, 22, who are working on the Tastad Pullet Farm operated by Mr. and Mrs. Paul Tastad, Mr. and Mrs. Ted Tastad, and Mr. and Mrs. Ralph Roalson near Snohomish, Wash.

The Tastad farm gets day-old chicks from a hatchery and raises them for about 20 weeks, selling them to a big retail merchant organization at Spokane 2 to 5 weeks before they start laying eggs. This operation is designed to eliminate the many "extra costs" entailed in individual farming, and permits the Tastads to raise about 500,000 chickens a year with some 250,000 on hand at one time. The farm is up to date in every respect, including communications. The owner uses two-way radios to keep in touch with the employees.

Mrs. Tastad, who "keeps the books," describes Skatashi and Masanori as "marvelous boys, eager to learn, who have absorbed knowledge galore in the course of their months with us."

"We must learn the American way of thinking," says Skatashi. "There is much to the pullet business besides production techniques, and we believe we have learned much about what you people call business competition. We must put into practice the methods that will enable us to sell our egg-layers at a cheaper price. There is a big market for eggs in Japan, but price puts them out of the reach of many.

"We have also learned in your country the importance of cooperation, because there cannot be independence without cooperation. Agriculture at this time is not considered a business industry in Japan and we must change this in order to meet world competition. We farmers must learn to cooperate."

'Land Is Precious'

His oldest brother inherited their father's sheet metal shop, but Skatashi hopes to put his knowledge into practice on the egg-layer farm of his uncle in Japan. A graduate of Chiba Commercial College, he plans to get the message of business competition across to other farmers. "But we must be patient," he adds. "Creation is the result of purposeful patience."

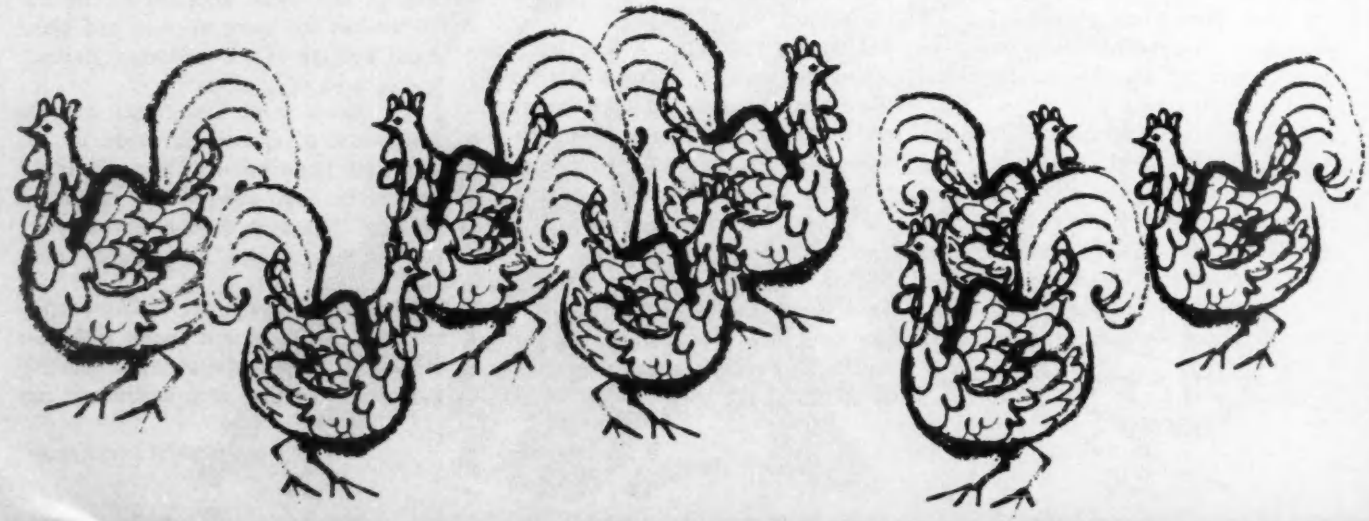
Masanori, who, with Skatashi, has plied the Tastad's with questions late into the night across the big kitchen table, agrees that Japanese agriculture must change.

"We must look to broad new horizons in agriculture in Japan," he said. "I am my father's eldest son, and so I will inherit the farm as my father inherited before me. We have only 3 acres, and it is planted in rice now. But I am sure the pullet business will be much better, more profitable. I feel it my duty to help change the pattern of thinking in my country with regard to agriculture. I will not be content to grow rice on government subsidy. We must meet the competition. Land is precious in our country, and we must make the most of it."

Most of the Japanese who have completed their training are putting into practice what they learned. Atsumu Iwaka, one of the graduates trained earlier by the Tastads, has written his former hosts that he will soon take over his father's farm in Japan as the 18th eldest son in succession to inherit the place, and that he plans to put much of his America-gained knowledge into effect immediately. Another Tastad alumnus, Takaaki Matsushita, 31, is now serving on the Seattle staff of the Japanese Agricultural Training Council. Still another, John Yazawa, 27, writes that he is now engaged in the "layer business" with his uncle in Japan, and after a time will be eligible for a government loan to enter business for himself.

Eighty-five percent of the first 150 to complete the 2-year course are now working in agriculture in their homeland, according to Iwao Tomeoka, acting director of the Japanese Agricultural Training Council, headquartered in Seattle. Many of them own and operate their own farms, he noted, and others are serving in the extension service, in farm experimental work, and in cooperatives.

"There is much enthusiasm in the homeland," he said and added that there are four or five times more applications than openings in the exchange program. "Significant progress is being made in our farming methods. From the ranks of these young men will come our agricultural leadership of the future. We are very grateful to America."



Building Up Minority Contractors

Who will rebuild the inner cities?

Whose hands will guide the saws, hammer the nails, install the wiring?

And who will get the construction contracts?

In New York's Bedford-Stuyvesant area —the Nation's second largest black neighborhood, and one with a massive concentration of poverty—31 minority builders have been busy putting together some answers of their own to these questions.

Bedford-Stuyvesant is part of the Central Brooklyn Model City. Word has spread in the community that some construction in this program will soon get underway, and that area residents are to be given maximum opportunity for employment in the program. Translated into the terms of their own business, this means to minority builders that they may be able to get an important piece of the action in all phases of construction.

To prepare for this eventuality, the 31 builders—most of them black, a few of them Puerto Rican, and all of them from Bedford-Stuyvesant—went back to school last spring to upgrade their skills in the construction business. For 9 weeks they attended night classes twice a week to take The Principles of Construction Estimating, a course given for them at Brooklyn's Pratt Institute. Not content with this, most of them look forward to continuing in two other courses now being planned, Advanced Construction Estimating, and Construction Management.

Few of these builders have had much experience as primary contractors in construction. Some have specialized in small demolition jobs, a task that takes relatively little in the way of sophisticated equipment or capital. A number have "subbed" for large white builders, taking on subcontracts for brickwork, foundations, or floors. Some men in the class at Pratt have never been contractors at all, or have been in this field only a short time. What they know about construction was accumulated during years of work at such trades as carpenter, plumber, architectural draftsman, bricklayer, concrete finisher, electrician.

Take Joe White, for example. Less than 2 years ago, he was working as a mechanic and doing general maintenance work, plus a little carpentry, for "anybody who would give me work." His income was so low that when he heard contracts might become available to minority builders under the Central Brooklyn Model

The instructor gets the undivided attention of (left to right) Leonard B. Johnson, Matthew Windsor, Artel Simpson, Jay McKenzie, and Ralph Miller.

Charles Blackman ponders a tough estimating problem.

Minority Contractors *continued*

City Program, he decided to launch out for himself. "I figured that if I could work for somebody else and starve," he says of this decision, "I could work for myself and starve."

White is not suffering as a result of his choice. He set up his own company, the JWAB Construction Corporation (its initials are taken from the first letter of his given name and those of his three sons, Wayne, Anthony, and Barry. His firm's net worth is about $20,000, and gives him an income of $200 to $250 a week which, as far as possible, he plows back into the business. His work is mostly in demolition, and this summer he held some $70,000 in demolition contracts with New York City agencies. Eventually, he hopes to build his company up to the point where he can take on substantial rehabilitation jobs and meet the requirements of this type of work for capital to buy lumber and other supplies.

What does a course in estimating do for a builder like Joe White? He supplies a ready answer: "Estimating is one of the most important parts of this business. It can make you or break you—if you make mistakes, you can lose your shirt. The successful bidder is not always the successful guy."

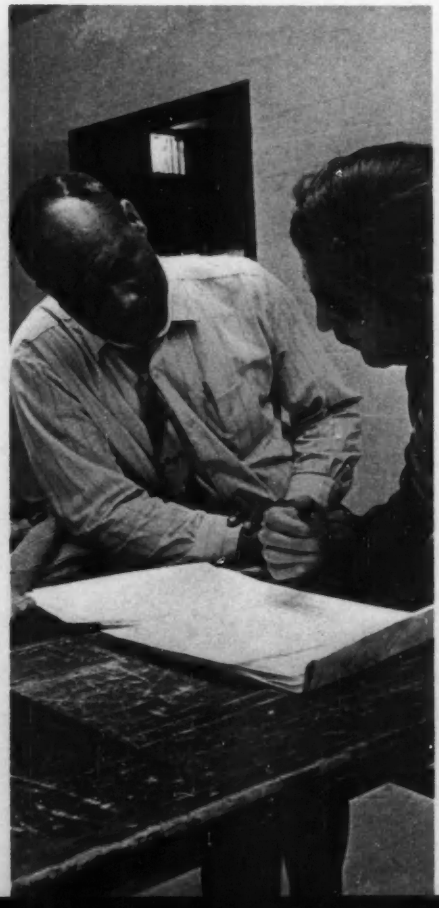
Leonard B. Johnson, another builder in the estimating course, agrees. The paperwork end of the job, Johnson says, is one of the most important parts of construction. In the days before he took the estimating course, his method of pricing work was to take a look at the size of the job, figure on a scrap of paper how many feet of lumber and the number of door and window units and other supplies were needed, and add on a rough figure for the labor cost. Then a little more was itemized as profit. The total of these items, he says, was pretty much the price he quoted for a job.

For more than a year, Johnson has been president of a consortium of minority building contractors, the United Craftsmen Company, Inc. Several other members of this group took the estimating course at Pratt and plan to continue in the followup courses.

The United Craftsmen have been gradually moving away from the informal methods of small businessmen ever since the company was incorporated in May 1968. Those signing up as shareholders—shares were sold at $100 each—were mostly small subcontractors or workers in the building trades who came together, at the urging of officials in city and community agencies, to enlarge their capability to take on Model City and other contracts.

Since incorporation, the Craftsmen have completed a number of small rehabilitation jobs, plus two in the $40,000-$50,000 bracket. They have a good credit rating and are able to get bank loans to finance their work and their purchase of materials until contract completion. They pay union wages to themselves, as individuals working on a job for the company, and to any extra men they bring in to help out. Company net worth is now $35,000, including $5,000 in such equipment as a truck, jackhammer, and a full range of small power tools.

"We are forging along and have been proving our competency," Johnson says, "and we are getting strong." But he and his coowners also know that new demands will be made upon them as they move ahead into bigger contracts and deal with larger amounts of money. They must rapidly learn many new business procedures, especially those in the paperwork department with which they are least familiar.



Instructor Seymour Berger (right) and Leonard B. Johnson review some instructional material.

Seymour Berger, one of the instructors in the Pratt estimating class, believes the minority contractors are going to need a lot more help with this end of their work. Estimating—let alone construction management—is not a subject Berger thinks can be taught adequately in 18 lessons. He should know. He is vice president of McKee-Berger-Mansueto, Inc., construction consultants and engineers in Manhattan, and estimating is his daily bread and butter. Nevertheless, the material presented to the minority contractors has, by their own account and Berger's, given them an important beginning.

They learned the terminology of estimating. They did rudimentary "takeoffs" from blueprints and specifications—the process of breaking out the quantity and quality of materials called for in a construction job. Then they set up sample jobs, and broke these into their component parts: Excavation and concrete, masonry, plastering, tile and ceramic work, roofing and sheet metal work, plumbing, carpentry, and the like.

They learned how to price these components, and decided upon those they could handle themselves and those to subcontract. They went into the subjects of overhead, contractor markups, and other costs involved in carrying out a job.

The class did not use textbooks. The teachers—among them a Pratt professor of construction theory, and a plan examiner and a chief of construction for New York City agencies—concentrated on the immediate problems of the students. Since the builders had come to the course from many different starting points of background and experience, no textbook could serve the variety of needs.

Now that the first course is over, a community action group that had a hand in setting it up—the Pratt Center for Community Improvement—is taking a look at the results. The Center is working to get a repeat course for other minority builders, but first wants to uncover all the kinks and gaps there may have been in the first one. A problem that was not met to anyone's satisfaction was how to pay for the course. In the end, the builders paid two-thirds of the cost themselves, most of them putting in about $100, and the other third was paid by the Pratt Center, which gets grants under the Higher

Education Act and from the Rockefeller Brothers Fund.

The center is planning advanced followup courses for minority builders, and is exploring ways to provide them with continued technical services, such as review of their estimates before they bid on contracts.

A good many problems for the builders still have to be solved. What these men call a "major hangup" are the bonding requirements they must meet for city, State, and Federal construction contracts and for most substantial private contracts as well. Bonding is to assure work completion for contracted amounts, but one effect has been to raise a serious barricade against minority contractors— many of whose firms are small and not well established—because bonding companies have been reluctant or unwilling to furnish them with the necessary bonds. Recognizing this, a couple of the New York City agencies which let construction contracts have slightly eased their requirements by asking for bonding only on jobs above $10,000 dollars, but the builders who took the Pratt class say this has opened up very little work to them.

The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People in New York City is studying the various difficulties minority contractors are up against. In July, the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development awarded a contract to this NAACP branch to collect information on these contractors, their resources, and their problems.

"This is a very important initial step in finding ways to help minority contractors get more involved in the building industry," HUD Secretary George Romney said. "Under the Model Cities legislation, we are called upon to use residents of the involved neighborhoods as much as possible. The same is true under major programs of the Housing and Urban Development Act of 1968."

In the 653 blocks of Bedford-Stuyvesant, there are people who are ready and waiting to get involved. During the estimating course at Pratt Institute, most of the builders agreed when classmate Gabriel Prince said:

"It does not take any special amount of brains to figure out that many parts of this city are going to be built up again and that black contractors are going to be doing the work. I want to be qualified."

Vocational Education in a Dynamic Labor Market

By Grant Venn

Vocational education has experienced in recent years a long-overdue revival sparked largely by the Vocational Education Act of 1963. Programs and enrollment have increased in nearly all States. Vocational leadership has been strengthened and there are indications that educators, public school administrators, and the general public have stopped thinking of vocational education as nothing more than classes in farming, carpentry, machine shop, or stenography. A false image is vanishing—that of "slow learners" pounding away on a piece of sheet metal or learning how to use an assortment of hand tools.

This shift in attitudes and the scope of the 1963 act breathed new life into a not-so-new philosophy: That vocational education is a basic function and objective of American education and therefore a basic element of everyone's educational experience.

For many years vocational education led a sheltered life. The jet age with its emphasis on specialization left an indelible impression on the world of work, but most educators and the general public clung to outdated ideas about vocational education. A few years later Sputnik ushered in a unique period in the history of the world. The space age put American education on the firing line. Still, scant attention was given to the role of elementary and secondary schools in preparing youth for jobs in an increasingly technological society. The emphasis on college education had become an obsession.

Although vocational education did not respond to the jet age or the space age, it did respond to paradoxes in our national economy. Poverty in the midst of plenty, and continued unemployment despite an expanding gross national product, combined to spotlight the undeniable fact that many Americans had neither the education, training, nor attitudes required to get and hold decent jobs. One outgrowth of these disturbing paradoxes was enactment of the Vocational Education Act of 1963. This legislation confirmed the Nation's determination to provide each youth and adult, regardless of race, color, or economic status, employment-oriented education suitable to his interests, needs, and the realities of the contemporary labor market.

The trends that led to the revival of interest in education for employment also have directed attention to the need for continuing education. Change demands adaptability, and adaptability depends on opportunities for continuing education. Public school education must prepare a young person for change. It is not enough to find him a job and leave him there. As an adult and a worker, he will have to refine and upgrade his

Grant Venn, Ph.D., is associate commissioner for Adult, Vocational, and Library Programs, U.S. Office of Education.

talents so he can adapt to change—so he can move on from where he is to where he has the potential to go.

The foundation for this mobility is total education, which includes occupational education—the link between man and the world of work. Along with intellectual knowledge, all educated persons must have occupational skills and an appreciation of the dignity of work. Preparation for entry into the work force must become a part of education at some point in school.

The best perspective for examining and determining the future goals of vocational education can be achieved by outlining four basic issues educators must tackle, with aid from the business and industrial communities.

First, most young people today will have to change occupations four or five times during their lives. Therefore, a long-range policy of teaching simple, specific job skills no longer makes sense; yet specific entry skills are required for that first job. Workers must be trained for clusters of jobs so they may switch from one job to another as technology advances. This dilemma is a major challenge facing educators, labor, industry, and business.

Second, nearly a million youngsters drop out of school each year before completing high school. Unemployment among young people, especially the disadvantaged and minority groups, is much higher than the overall national rate. With only 20 percent of our young people earning a baccalaureate degree, job training must be made available to the remaining 80 percent if they are to become productive citizens.

It is intolerable that there is high unemployment among young people at a time when the Nation faces the greatest critical shortage of technical manpower in its history. Technological breakthroughs of the last 5 years have boosted demands for trained personnel in scientific research, development, production, and services in all fields of applied science. Today, four technicians are needed for each engineer or physical scientist, six to ten for each medical doctor or researcher in the health fields, and four to five for each biological scientist. By 1975, according to the Department of Labor, the service occupations alone will need more than 5.5 million new workers for growth and replacement.

Third, thousands of men and women lose their jobs every week because of automation. These adults, retrained in a manpower program and perhaps with refresher or basic education, could become employable. Opportunities for continued learning would increase their chances for promotion or for employment in new occupations.

Fourth, underemployment among young people and adults already in the labor force is a continuing problem. These persons are the "hangers-on" who work for less than decent wages, have meager abilities and skills, and have difficulty managing the situations and pressures of everyday life. They, too, will swell the unemployment statistics unless they receive help through adult training and retraining programs.

The Nation can no longer tolerate a system of education that excludes those who, for some reason, are not learning well at the moment; or those who do not or cannot aspire to a 4-year college education. Neither can it tolerate the loss in human resources nor bear the financial burden of supporting thousands of unemployed persons who lack academic and vocational skills. We must increase the options in our public school system.

Involving Schools in Job Preparation

The vocational education amendments of 1968 make possible needed changes in education. They focus on curing many past deficiencies by supporting programs of vocational education that are realistic and relevant. The new legislation is aimed at making occupational preparation a goal in the public school system, beginning in elementary school and continuing through the postsecondary adult school level.

The amendments emphasize (1) the vocational education needs of all population groups; (2) educational and manpower priorities in economically depressed areas and those with high rates of unemployment; (3) development of new careers and occupations; and (4) introduction and expansion of exploratory occupational education projects, cooperative work-experience programs, and work-study programs at the public school level. Educators should move quickly in planning curriculums and new approaches to reach all youth and many adults. In its broadest sense, the 1968 legislation will help educators remove barriers between the academic, general, and vocational curriculums.

A variety of steps can and should be taken at the local level to reach those most in need of new educational programs and approaches:

- Curriculum improvement would stimulate broad-scale innovative changes to provide realistic vocational education programs at all skill levels for youth and adults. Curriculum changes should include new instructional media; improved curriculum guides; and new techniques and services to prepare youth and adults for job entry or for continuing education at the postsecondary level.

- Exploratory occupational education programs and orientation and guidance programs in grades 7, 8, and 9 would acquaint junior high school students with the demands and options in the changing world of work. It is during this period that the majority of young people drop out of school psychologically, if not physically. Many of the approximately 10

million boys and girls enrolled in junior high schools in urban areas have little knowledge or understanding of work, or of career opportunities in various occupations. Even in small towns and rural communities where work is no stranger to young people, knowledge of the occupational spectrum is limited.

• Occupational-oriented programs for all students in grades 10-12 and skill-development programs for some high school students which lead to postsecondary, on-the-job, or in-school preparation for careers would encourage students at the secondary level to make a tentative occupational choice. These programs must be continuous, with expert counseling and guidance provided whenever a student changes his goal. They also must be flexible enough to permit a crossover from one curriculum to another without penalty.

• Job placement and followup services should be part of each high school program. Schools now assume full responsibility for baccalaureate-bound students by placing them in an academic program suitable to their future needs, but public secondary schools have avoided responsibility for initial job placement. High schools should assume responsibility for placing in their first jobs students who are not going to college. Placement services also should be extended to dropouts who return to school for vocational training and to persons taking postsecondary vocational and technical education. The success of a placement program will require the cooperation of business, industry, and labor which, in turn, will gain the services of well-educated and well-trained employees. Cooperative efforts between schools and local employment services should be expanded.

• Expansion of work-study programs in all categories would encourage students to remain in school and offer a second chance to many dropouts. Under work-study arrangements, full-time vocational students, dropouts who have been accepted as full-time students, and unemployed in-school youth get part-time jobs in local education agencies or public institutions. Jobs and school work should be related where possible. But even if they are not, the pay enables students to remain in school, complete their training, and learn good work habits. Any needy student between the ages of 15 and 21 may participate in work-study programs.

The concept that technical knowledge and personal growth can be developed effectively through on-the-job training received support in the 1963 Vocational Education Act and is gradually being accepted by educators. Work experience adds that needed fourth "R" to education—relevancy—and it encourages a partnership between the school and the business and industrial community.

Work-experience programs—often referred to as cooperative vocational education—are offered at the postsecondary level in junior colleges or community colleges, and in technical and secondary schools. They train a youngster for work by supplementing classroom and laboratory instruction with on-the-job experience in the occupation of his choice. Probably no other learning procedure can rival cooperative work experience in building self-confidence and motivating a student to achieve his goal.

Depending on when it is offered, cooperative on-the-job training provides opportunities for occupational exploration, gives students a chance to test theory against practice and to develop skills best learned through actual experience, and serves as an internship period prior to job entry and eases the transition from school to work. The 1968 legislation increases the authorization for cooperative work-experience programs. It makes available funds for personnel to coordinate programs and instruct students, and to reimburse employers for added costs of on-the-job training and supervision. Priority will be given to programs designed for the disadvantaged, the handicapped, slum youth, dropouts, and postsecondary students, and for the development of projects in new and changing occupations.

Education Is Everybody's Business

Employment opportunities continue to grow; employers daily advertise "help wanted." Hundreds of thousands of jobs are unfilled in all types of business. Lack of people to fill the jobs is not the problem. The problem is lack of educated and skilled people to fill the jobs—at the same time that we anticipate a trillion-dollar gross national product in the 1970's and a population by the 1980's that will yield 100 million persons for the work force.

Education in America has become everybody's business. Whatever gives purpose and meaning to an individual's life by sharpening his powers of reasoning, strengthening his values, refining his sensitivities, and cultivating his vocational talents also invests in the preservation of a genuinely free society.

In our achievement-oriented society, education has the unceasing task of reshuffling priorities whenever conditions demand. We now have in the 1968 vocational education amendments an instrument to integrate the concept of learning for earning into our educational process. We must not hesitate to seize this opportunity. In the long run, vocational education is a much better investment than remedial and corrective programs. This Nation has too long failed to support a career-preparation program for all students in its educational system.

President Would Expand Local

Following are excerpts from President Nixon's message to the Congress in which he proposed major changes in the funding and operation of manpower programs, including giving State and local officials greater responsibility and authority for planning and administration.

A job is one rung on the ladder of a lifelong career of work.

That is why we must look at manpower training with new eyes: as a continuing process to help people to get started in a job and to get ahead in a career.

"Manpower training" is one of those phrases with a fine ring and an imprecise meaning. Before a fresh approach can be taken, a clear definition is needed.

Manpower training means: (1) Making it possible for those who are unemployed or on the fringes of the labor force to become permanent, full-time workers; (2) giving those who are now employed at low income the training and the opportunity they need to become more productive and more successful; (3) discovering the potential in those people who are now considered unemployable, removing many of the barriers now blocking their way.

Manpower training, in order to work on all rungs of the ladder, requires the efficient allocation by private enterprise and government of these human resources. We must develop skills in a place, in a quantity, and in a way to ensure that they are used effectively and constantly improved.

Today, Government spends approximately $3 billion in a wide variety of manpower programs, with half directly devoted to job training; private enterprise spends much more on job training alone. The investment by private industry—given impetus by the profit motive as well as a sense of social responsibility—is the fundamental means of developing the Nation's labor force. But the Government's investment has failed to achieve its potential for many reasons, including duplication of effort, inflexible funding arrangements, and an endless ribbon of red tape. For example:

- A jobless man goes to the local skill training center to seek help. He has the aptitudes for training in blue collar mechanical work, but no suitable training opportunities are available. At the same time, vacancies exist in a white collar New Careers project and in the Neighborhood Youth Corps. But the resources of these programs cannot be turned over to the training program that has the most local demand. . . .
- A big-city mayor takes the lead in trying to put together a cohesive manpower program for the entire labor market area—tying together jobless workers in the inner city with job openings outside the "beltway." He finds it difficult to assemble a coherent picture of what's going on. Manpower programs funded by different agencies follow different reporting rules, so that the statistics cannot be added up. Moreover, there is no single agency which maintains an inventory of all currently operating manpower programs. He knows that help is available—but where does he turn? . . .

More Flexibility Sought

This confused state of affairs in the development of human resources can no longer be tolerated. Government exists to serve the needs of people, not the other way around. The idea of creating a set of "programs," and then expecting people to fit themselves into those programs, is contrary to the American spirit; we must redirect our efforts to tailor government aid to individual need.

This Government has a major responsibility to make certain that the means to learn a job skill and improve that skill are available to those who need it.

Manpower training is central to our commitment to aid the disadvantaged and to help people off welfare rolls and onto payrolls. Intelligently organized, it will save tax dollars now spent on welfare, increase revenues by widening the base of the taxpaying public, and—most important—lift human beings into lives of greater dignity.

I propose a comprehensive new Manpower Training Act that would pull together much of the array of Federal training services and make it possible for State and local government to respond to the needs of the individual trainee.

The Nation must have a manpower system that will enable each individual to take part in a sequence of activities—tailored to his unique needs— to prepare for and secure a good job. The various services people need are afforded in laws already on the books. The need today is to knit together all the appropriate services in one readily available system. By taking this step, we can better help the disadvantaged gain control and direction of their own lives.

First Step Taken in March

A first step was taken in this direction in March when I announced the reorganization of the Manpower Administration of the U.S. Department of Labor. This reorganization consolidated the agencies that had fragmented responsibility for carrying out most of the Nation's manpower training program. We must now complete the job by streamlining the statutory framework for our manpower training efforts.

In specific terms, the act which I propose would:

1. Consolidate major manpower development programs administered by the Department of Labor—namely, the Manpower Development and Training Act and Title I-A (Job Corps) and I-B (Community Work and Training Program) of the Economic Opportunity Act. These programs, operated in conjunction with strengthened State manpower agencies, will provide training activities in a cohesive manpower services system. The Office of Economic Opportunity, without major manpower operational responsibilities, will continue its role in research work and program development, working with the Department of Labor in pioneering new manpower training approaches.

2. Provide flexible funding of manpower training services so that they can be sensitive to and focused on local needs;

l Role in Manpower Training

this will ensure the most efficient use of available resources.

3. Decentralize administration of manpower services to States and metropolitan areas, as governors and mayors evidence interest, build managerial capacity, and demonstrate effective performance. This process will take place in three stages. First, a State will administer 25 percent of the funds apportioned to it when it develops a comprehensive manpower planning capability; second, it will exercise discretion over 66⅔ percent when it establishes a comprehensive Manpower Training Agency to administer the unified programs; and, third, it will administer 100 percent when the State meets objective standards of exemplary performance in planning and carrying out its manpower service system.

Unified Administration

The proposed act will assure that equitable distribution of the manpower training dollars is made to the large metropolitan areas and to rural districts, working through a State grant system.

By placing greater reliance on State and local elected officials, the day-to-day planning and administration of manpower programs will become more responsive to individual job training needs. A dozen States have already taken steps to reshape administrative agencies and to unify manpower and related programs.

To qualify for full participation under the proposed act, each State and the major cities in a State would unify manpower administration under State and local prime sponsors. These agencies would administer the programs funded by the Federal Government; be responsible for other State and local activities to help people secure employment; help employers find manpower; and work in close liaison with State and local vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, and welfare programs, for which leadership will be provided at the national level by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

In addition, the State and local prime sponsors would establish advisory bodies, including employees, employers, and representatives of the local populations to be served, to assist in developing local policy. In this manner, the units of government would be able to benefit continually from the experience and counsel of the private sector.

4. Provide more equitable allowances for trainees, simplifying the present schedule to provide an incentive for a trainee to choose the training best suited to his own future, and not the training that "pays" most.

As an incentive to move from welfare rolls to payrolls, the allowance to welfare recipients who go into training would be increased to $30 per month above their present welfare payments. These increased training allowances carefully dovetail into the work incentive outlined in my message to the Congress regarding the transformation of the welfare system. As the welfare recipient moves up the ladder from training to work, the first $60 per month of earnings would result in no deductions from federally financed payments.

5. Create a career development plan for trainees tailored to suit their individual capabilities and ambitions.

Eligible applicants—in general, those over 16 who need training—would be provided a combination of services that would help them to train, to find work, and to move on up the ladder. These services will include counseling, basic vocational education, medical care, work experience, institutional and on-the-job training, and job referral. Manpower services will also be available for those who are presently employed but whose skill deficiencies hold them in low-income, dead-end jobs.

6. Establish a national computerized Job Bank to match jobseekers with job vacancies. It would operate in each State, with regional and national activities undertaken by the Secreary of Labor, who would also set technical standards.

The computers of the Job Bank would be programed with constantly changing data on available jobs. A jobseeker would tell an employment counselor his training or employment background, his skills and career plans, which could be matched with a variety of available job options. This would expand the potential worker's freedom of choice and help him make the best use of his particular talents.

7. Authorize the use of the comprehensive manpower training system as an economic stabilizer. If rising unemployment were ever to suggest the possibility of a serious economic downturn, a counter-cyclical automatic "trigger" would be provided. Appropriations for manpower services would be increased by 10 percent if the national unemployment rate equals or exceeds 4.5 percent for 3 consecutive months. People without the prospect of immediate employment could use this period to enhance their skills—and the productive capacity of the Nation. . . .

Making Federalism Work

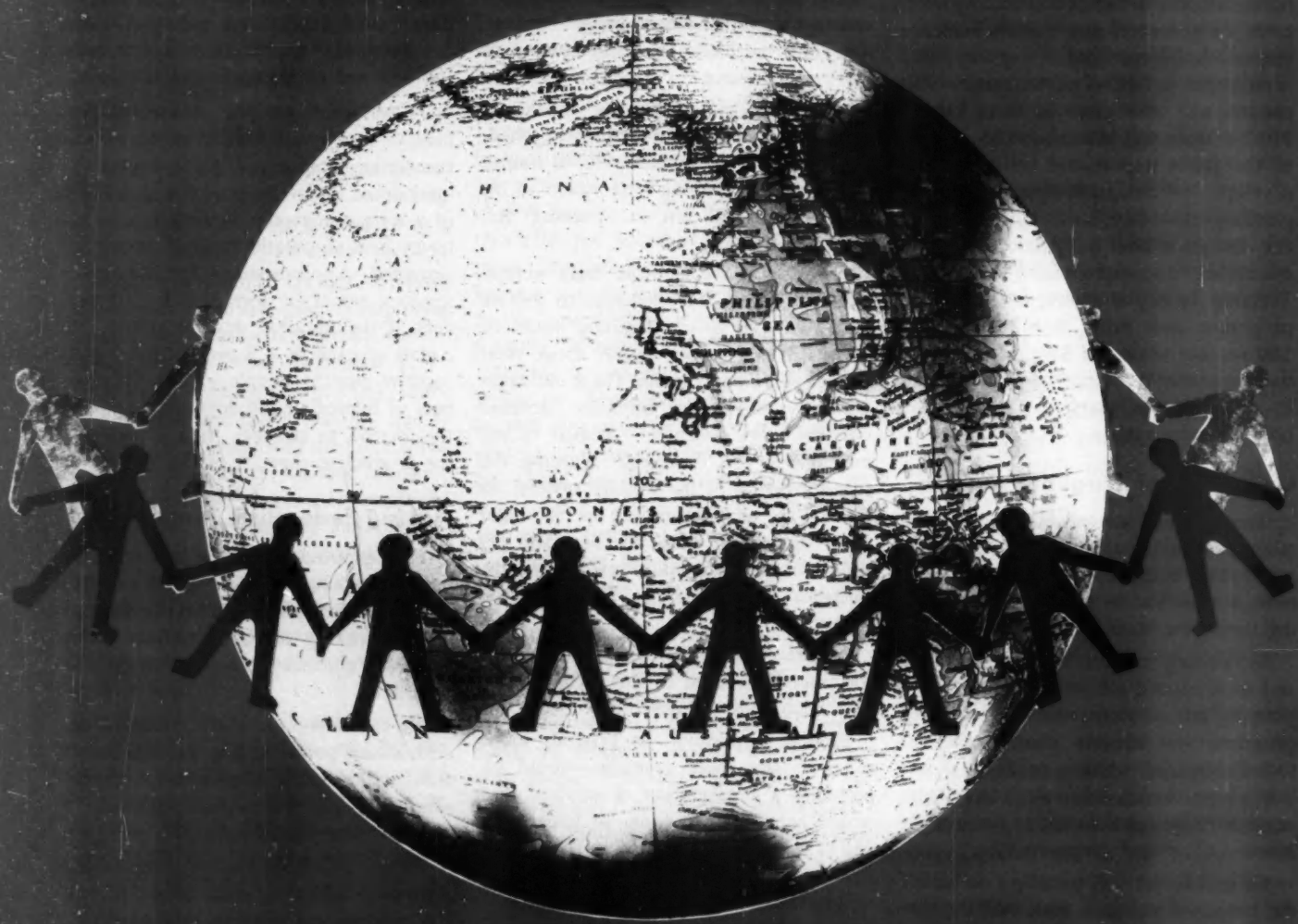
The proposed comprehensive Manpower Training Act is a good example of a new direction in making federalism work. Working together, we can bring order and efficiency to a tangle of Federal programs.

We can answer a national need by decentralizing power, setting national standards, and assigning administrative responsibility to the States and localities in touch with community needs.

We can relate substantial Federal-State manpower efforts to other efforts in welfare reform, tax sharing, and economic opportunity, marshaling the resources of the departments and agencies involved to accomplish a broad mission.

We can meet individual human needs without encroaching on personal freedom, which is perhaps the most exciting challenge to Government today.

With these proposals, which I strongly urge the Congress to enact, we can enhance America's human resources. By opening up the opportunity for manpower training on a large scale, we build a person's will to work; in so doing, we build a bridge to human dignity.



A UNITED NATIONS FOR MANPOWER

The youngster in a Brazilian squatter colony, the youngster in a Panama City tenement, and the youngster using the sidewalks of Manila for a bed have something in common besides poverty. They are linked by the efforts of their own and other developing nations to master their manpower problems. This important link is maintained through the International Manpower Institute (IMI), an ongoing program of the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration to train officials from emerging nations who are concerned with human resources development.

The Labor Department's 12th IMI seminar ended recently. One of the delegates with a special interest in youth was Mrs. Rachel E. Fidelino, head executive assistant to the Secretary of Labor of the Philippines. In this post Mrs. Fidelino not only oversees the planning and development of the Philippines' youth and manpower programs, but also lobbies for them in her role as official liaison between the Republics' Department of Labor and its Congress.

Mrs. Fidelino points out that the Philippines has a young population. Forty-nine percent of its people are under 19 years of age. The median age for men is 17; the median for women is 16. A soft-spoken woman, Mrs. Fidelino describes the enormity of her nation's training and job needs.

"About half of the unemployed people in our country are under 20 years old. Four million youngsters from 7 to 17 have dropped out of school. Our schools cannot take back this vast mass of youngsters—even though they would like to—because our birth rate, the fourth highest in the world, supplies so many new students coming into the schools that there are not enough schools, teachers, or books to meet the needs of all our youth."

Some of the school dropouts get into trouble with the police in their efforts to make a living, she said. These are the youngsters in street trades who sell lottery tickets, newspapers, and shoeshines. Under a Manila ordinance, they may be arrested and charged with obstruction, fingerprinted, and lodged in a cell "like ordinary criminals."

In recent years some vocational training has been available for youth outside the regular school system, she said. Now, however, broad, comprehensive programs to meet youth needs will get underway under the Manpower and Out-of-School Youth Development Act of the Philippines which was passed early this year. Mrs. Fidelino said this legislation calls for a National Manpower and Youth Council with members from various government agencies, industry, and private welfare organizations. It has broad responsibilities for setting up and administering youth and manpower programs. The Secretary of Labor is council chairman, which gives many new responsibilities to Mrs. Fidelino.

"My studies at the International Manpower Institute have given me ideas from U.S. programs and also from other countries—ideas that we can adjust to our needs in the Philippines," she said. As a participant in the seminar, Mrs. Fidelino worked 3 months with 39 other officials from 21 countries, heard the reports of many U.S. specialists, and visited a number of programs in this country in her search for techniques to take home. Among these were the Washington, D.C., Youth Tutors Youth project (see *Teaching Turns Them On,* Manpower, July 1969) in which underachieving youngsters of 14 and 15 tutor younger children as a preventive force against their dropping out of school.

Share Common Concern

For 8 years, the U.S. Department of Labor has been training leaders of developing nations, people like Mrs. Fidelino who play important roles in planning, setting up, and administering their countries' manpower programs. By the end of this year, the Institute will have trained 315 people from 68 countries.

Institute seminars could be described as a United Nations for manpower—an assembly of able people with many different heritages of race, language, history, culture, and geography, all sharing a common concern: How to make better use of human resources.

Two groups of participants, most of whose expenses are paid by the Agency for International Development, come to Washington, D.C., each year for these studies. Linguistically speaking, the 12th seminar had a Spanish accent, with representatives attending from eight Spanish-speaking nations—Colombia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Philippines, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, and Venezuela. Joining them were representatives from Indonesia, Jordan, Brazil, Libya, Pakistan, India, Guyana, Jamaica, Mauritius, Nepal, Sierra Leone, Turkey, and Nigeria. In the fall, the Institute began training another group of delegates, most of them from French or English-speaking nations.

For the first month, delegates hear U.S. manpower experts from government, labor, business, or academic fields speak on population influences on rural and urban labor forces, health manpower needs, the relationship of education to manpower planning, manpower analysis and forecasting, the measurement of unemployment and underemployment, rural-urban migration, skill development, and similar subjects. The delegates also consult individually with these experts, speak at group sessions on their home country experiences with manpower development, and use a rich, multilingual library on manpower maintained by the Labor Department.

See Projects in Action

Later, the foreign representatives divide up to tour the U.S. for a first-hand look at our manpower programs in action. One group of delegates to the 12th seminar, including all the representatives of the Spanish-speaking nations, visited a cattle ranch, a small plant which processes Mexican foods, a local office of the Texas Employment Commission, and the Multi-Service Center of the San Antonio, Tex., Concentrated Employment Program. Mrs. Fidelino was especially delighted by her talks with Spanish-speaking youth at the Multi-Service Center. "There was no effort exerted to make the young people forget their Spanish—or their culture," she said. "The effort is to teach them ordinary English which will help them in their jobs."

Another group visited the Midwest and took in a skills training center, a neighborhood health center, a housing development, a Job Corps center, and a Work Incentive (WIN) project.

After returning to Washington, the foreign officials set out on a fresh enterprise: The solution of the manpower problems of Aurora, a nation invented by the Institute. Aurora's problems typify those of many developing countries. The delegates, divided into small working groups, acted as advisers to the Auroran govern-

ment on manpower analysis and planning.

It was a serious game. For the visiting specialists, Aurora's mock problems represented real life situations at home and called forth real life knowledge and skills. The working sessions on Aurora erupted at times into hot verbal battles. There were disagreements over the uses to be made of Aurora's mountainsides, and whether labor intensive measures were justified in her agriculture. Occasionally, the delegates emerged at the end of a hard day with the word they were going to support a revolution in Aurora. But the next morning they were again concentrating on less dramatic measures, such as the accurate forecasting of labor force requirements, and other components of workable manpower programs.

All this was enormously stimulating, Institute participants said. "I have the same feeling here that I had in the university at home," Victor Edward Pratt of Sierra Leone said. He is senior district officer for the Ministry of Interior. "Manpower is a new concept in government, and one in which the U.S. is leading the world. I am going home pregnant with ideas."

U.S. Efforts Reviewed

Among the U.S. experts who shared ideas with delegates to the 12th seminar was Arnold R. Weber, Assistant Secretary of Labor for Manpower. He gave them a look at the way our manpower programs developed:

"Although we think manpower programs are very new in this country," Weber said, "it is significant to note their historical development. Much of this country's history has been associated with manpower policies in one form or another. Until the sixties, there were three elements of manpower policy, although they were not identified as such.

"The earliest was the policy of free immigration. This was an instrument to deal with the problem of labor scarcity, and it maintained an abundant supply of labor at a generally low wage rate and at unskilled levels."

The other historic elements of manpower policies Weber sited were free public education, which improved the quality of the U.S. labor force, and the passage of unemployment insurance legislation. Modern manpower policies began only 8 years ago in the U.S., Weber said, with the provision in the Area Redevelopment Act of 1961 for retraining workers in depressed areas.

"In 8 years, we have come from a national commitment to support 20,000 training opportunities to one supporting about 1.1 million training opportunities—an astonishing growth in a period of time that is just a twinkle of the eye as far as policy development is concerned," the assistant secretary declared.

Because many of the seminar participants were from countries with economies that are still primarily agrarian, there was special emphasis on agriculture. Daniel W. Sturt, director of the Rural Manpower Center at Michigan State University, told the seminar that farm labor management is a tremendously exciting area which has been ignored in the U.S.

Lack of Farm Training

"The reason for this," he said, "is our adherence to a myth that all labor on farms is provided by farm families. We are taking a second look at this and finding that our Government policies which are predicated on this myth ignore a lot of people. About 25 percent of the hours of work that go into U.S. agriculture are provided by people who don't own the land."

The U.S. needs to train year-round technicians to work in agriculture, Sturt said. But he added that "almost nothing is happening in terms of training people for farmwork and for agricultural employment. For example, we desperately need skilled workers in the dairy industry. The pay is about $6,000 a year for dairy herdsmen, who are essentially technicians on large dairy farms. It's very hard to get them. It's very hard to convince the Government that we should even train them because of the low status of agricultural work."

Management training also is important in agriculture, Sturt said. In the last few years a number of seminars have been held in Michigan, he pointed out, to help farm employers do a better job of supervising their workers. "It's high time we took industrial relations and management relations to agriculture," he said, "because we have too many situations in the world in which supervisors think they are dealing with a bunch of slaves. They have created a work environment which is not conducive to the best production by the workers.

"We are trying to teach the idea of management sharing, which is really nothing more than saying that managers should involve workers in various decisions on the farm. What do you do when you try to involve workers in decisions? You say to them, 'I think you are important.' "

Medical Assistants Needed

Dr. Leonard D. Fenninger, director of the Bureau of Health Professions, Education, and Manpower Training of the National Institutes of Health, spoke about health manpower needs. All over the world, he said, the use of paramedical personnel is increasing in order to meet the rising demands for public and personal health services. Providing proper supervision for such workers is a major problem, Dr. Fenninger noted.

"One has to have physicians, nurses, and dentists who know how to work with and supervise other kinds of health workers. But most professional people do not have experience in supervision or in working with and understanding what other kinds of people can do.

"One of the great tasks for the health manpower planner is to set up programs to train and educate professionals in sharing responsibility with nonprofessionals in the provision of health services. In the United States, this is probably the most difficult task ahead of us if we are to rapidly expand our health services."

Seminar participants also heard Department of Labor specialists discuss administration of manpower programs, data systems for determining manpower needs, and techniques for measuring employment and underemployment. Other speakers focused on the influence of population growth on the labor force and education and skills development.

A few delegates stayed on in the U.S. for more intensive work at the Department of Labor in manpower forecasting and job analysis. But most went home, where plenty of manpower problems were awaiting them. By summer's end, as seminar participants scattered over the globe, Aurora was probably the only country in the world whose manpower problems were all solved.

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Unless otherwise indicated, single copies can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210. For publications not available free and for multiple copies of all priced items, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Occupational Licensing and the Supply of Nonprofessional Manpower

Manpower Administration research monograph based on a 1968 pilot study of occupational licensing practices in California, Florida, Illinois, New York, and Texas.

Comparison of State Unemployment Insurance Laws—Revision Series 2, Number 3

Revised loose-leaf pages covering changes in State unemployment insurance laws effective since Revision No. 2, Series 2 (January 1969) and technical modifications in existing text and tables. Includes new section on Work Incentive Program. $1. No free copies available.

How to Get a Job

Guide published especially for mentally retarded jobseekers by the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped. It contains simple language, attention-getting drawings suited to the subject matter, and a list of 100 jobs the mentally retarded can do. A Teacher's Manual also is available to show how the guide can be used in the classroom.

Guide to Job Placement of the Mentally Retarded

Booklet prepared by President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped to help employers adjust to idea and experience of hiring mentally retarded workers. Gives sound, practical advice on establishing good employer-employee relationship.

Employment Assistance for the Handicapped

Directory of Federal and State programs to aid the handicapped in their search for employment, prepared by the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped. Divided into three parts: (1) Where to go for guidance, education, rehabilitation, work experience; (2) how to find a job; (3) help for small businessmen, sheltered workshops, inventors, and farmers.

Helping the Handicapped in Rural Areas

Booklet—prepared jointly by the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped and U.S. Departments of Agriculture; Health, Education, and Welfare; and Labor—lists types and sources of assistance available to rural handicapped and offers suggestions for professional and voluntary participation. 10 cents.

Wasted Assets?

President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped booklet giving short reports on how seven communities are helping former mental patients make transition to working world.

Guide to Job Placement of the Mentally Restored

Practical guide prepared by the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped for employers who are considering employment of workers with a history of mental illness.

Careers for Women in Conservation

Women's Bureau leaflet outlines opportunities for women in the conservation field and discusses eight major conservation professions which appeal to women. 10 cents.

Weightlifting Provisions for Women by State

Women's Bureau booklet lists weightlifting provisions for women workers which are now in effect in 10 States and Puerto Rico.

State Minimum Wage Legislation

Wage and Labor Standards Administration booklet discusses need for and benefits derived from State minimum wage legislation and recent progress in the effecting of such legislation.

State Safety Code Comparison Studies

Bureau of Labor Standards study comparing State safety codes. Study details progress made during last 5 to 15 years in State safety rulemaking activity for selected areas and shows degree of uniformity of State safety codes with nationally recognized safety standards.

Selected Publications of the Bureau of Labor Standards

Booklet lists all currently available Bureau of Labor Standards publications, with references to certain series out of print but frequently available in libraries.

Safety Alphabets

The ABC's of safety are spelled out for longshoremen and for shipyard workers in two flyers published by the Bureau of Labor Standards.

Summary of Manufacturing Production Workers Earnings Series, 1939-68

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin presents in tabular form selected trends in earnings and hours of production workers in manufacturing. Supplements will be issued semiannually. 30 cents. No free copies available.

Union Wages and Hours: Building Trades

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin presents comprehensive account of wage rates in the building trades in effect as of July 1, 1968 and includes indexes of wages and hours for period 1907-68. 55 cents. No free copies available.

Labor in the U.S.S.R.

Compilation of nine articles prepared and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on labor in the Soviet Union since September 1966. Also includes selected bibliography on the subject.

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION
WASHINGTON, D.C. 20210

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

POSTAGE AND FEES PAID
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FIRST CLASS MAIL